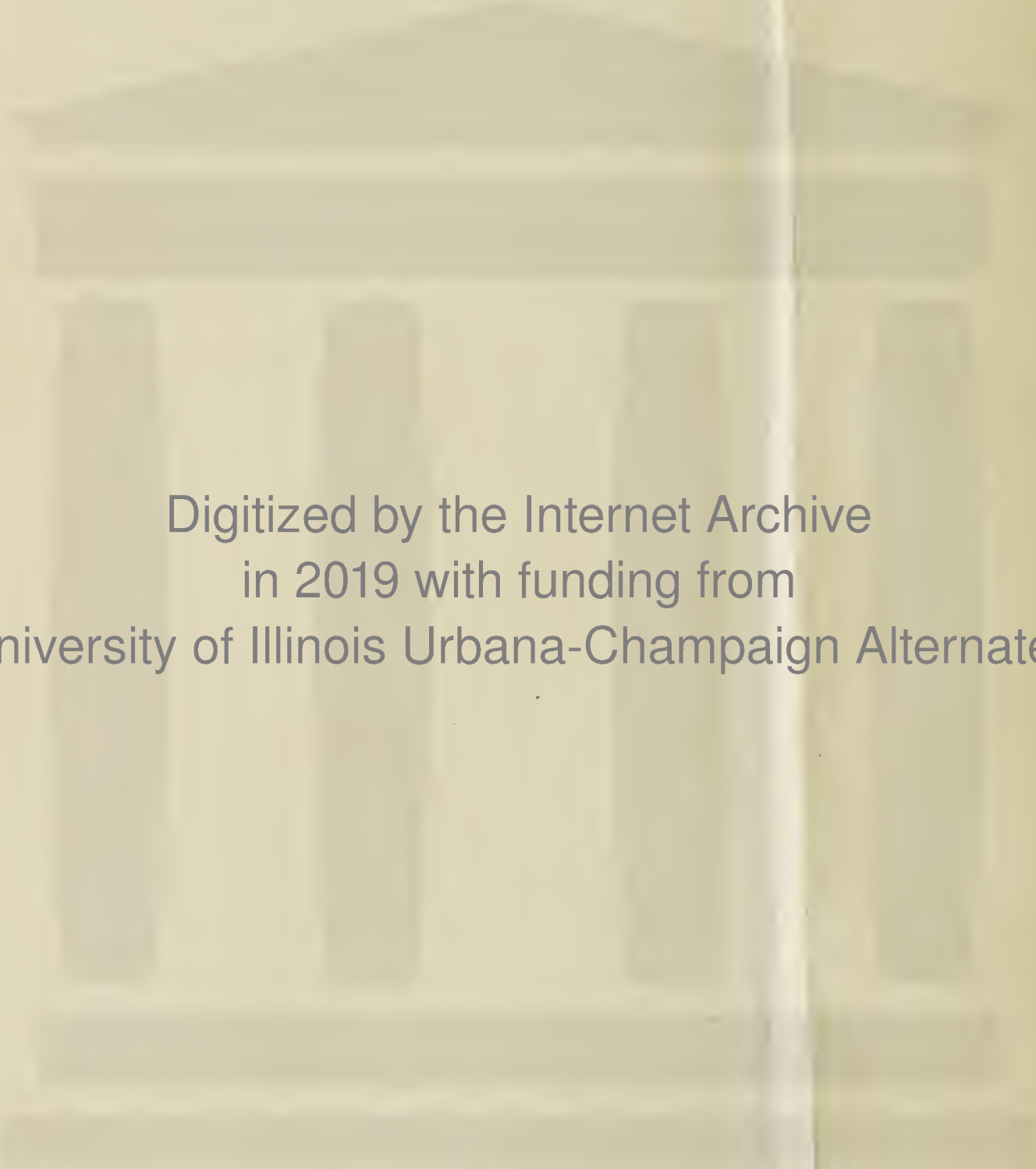


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[Communiqué au Conseil,
aux Membres de la Société
et aux Délégués à l'Assemblée.]

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GENÈVE, le 24 août 1922.

SOCIÉTÉ DES NATIONS

COMMISSION DE COOPÉRATION INTELLECTUELLE

Première session, tenue à Genève du 1^{er} au 5 août 1922.

Rapport de la Commission, approuvé par le Conseil
le 13 septembre 1922.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

First Session, held at Geneva from August 1st to 5th, 1922.

Report of the Committee approved, by the Council
on September 13th, 1922.

SOCIÉTÉ DES NATIONS

RAPPORT DE LA COMMISSION DE COOPÉRATION INTELLECTUELLE APPROUVÉ PAR LE CONSEIL LE 13 SEPTEMBRE 1922

En vertu du mandat que l'Assemblée et le Conseil de la Société des Nations ont bien voulu lui confier, la Commission de coopération intellectuelle s'est réunie à Genève le 1^{er} août 1922.

Etaient présents :

M ^{lle} BONNEVIE,	Professeur de zoologie à l'Université de Christiania, déléguée de la Norvège à l'Assemblée de la Société des Nations.
M ^{me} CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA,	Professeur de physique à l'Université de Paris, professeur honoraire de l'Université de Varsovie, membre de l'Académie de médecine de Paris, de l'Académie polonaise et de la Société des sciences de Varsovie.
M. D. N. BANNERJEA,	Professeur d'économie politique à l'Université de Calcutta.
M. H. BERGSON,	Professeur honoraire de philosophie au Collège de France, membre de l'Académie française et de l'Académie des sciences morales et politiques.
M. A. DE CASTRO,	Professeur de clinique médicale et directeur de la Faculté de médecine de l'Université de Rio-de-Janeiro.
M. J. DESTRÉE,	Ancien ministre des Sciences et des Arts, membre de l'Académie belge de littérature et de langue française.
M. G. E. HALE,	Directeur de l'observatoire de Mount-Wilson, membre étranger de la Royal Society associé étranger de l'Institut de France, membre du Comité exécutif du Conseil international de recherches, président honoraire du Conseil national de recherches des Etats-Unis.
M. G. A. MURRAY,	Professeur de philologie grecque à l'Université d'Oxford, membre du Conseil de l'Académie britannique, délégué de l'Afrique du Sud à l'Assemblée de la Société des Nations.
M. G. DE REYNOLD,	Professeur de littérature française à l'Université de Berne.
M. F. RUFFINI,	Professeur de droit canon à l'Université de Turin, ancien ministre de l'Instruction publique, président de l'Académie royale de Turin, président de l'Union des associations pour la Société des Nations.
M. L. DE TORRES-QUEVEDO,	Directeur du laboratoire électro-mécanique de Madrid, membre de la Commission pour l'extension des études scientifiques, membre de l'Académie royale des sciences de Madrid.

S'était excusé : le professeur A. EINSTEIN, empêché par une mission scientifique au Japon de participer aux travaux de la première session.

Fonctionnait comme suppléant du D^r HALE, empêché d'assister à toutes les séances :

Le D ^r R. A. MILLIKAN,	Directeur du laboratoire de physique du « Norman Bridge », à l'Institut de technologie de Californie, vice-président du Conseil national de recherches des Etats-Unis, membre du Conseil international de recherches, secrétaire pour l'étranger de l'Académie nationale des sciences, professeur d'échange en Belgique.
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Assistaient aux séances :

Le D ^r I. NITOBÉ,	Sous-Secrétaire général de la Société des Nations, professeur à l'Université de Tokio, chargé de collaborer aux travaux de la Commission.
M. J. LUCHAIRE,	Inspecteur général de l'Instruction publique de France, expert, accompagnant M. Bergson.
M. W. MARTIN,	Conseiller technique du Bureau international du Travail.

Fonctionnaient comme secrétaire de la Commission :

M. O. DE HALECKI,	Professeur à l'Université de Varsovie, ancien doyen de la Faculté de philosophie, membre du Secrétariat de la Société des Nations,
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et comme secrétaire aux procès-verbaux :

M. A. TOLÉDANO,	Membre du Secrétariat de la Société des Nations.
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La Commission a élu M. BERGSON, président, M. MURRAY, vice-président, et M. DE REYNOLD, rapporteur; elle a siégé du mardi 1^{er} août au samedi 5 et a tenu dix séances. Elle a l'honneur de présenter au Conseil les résultats auxquels elle est actuellement parvenue. On trouvera à la fin du présent rapport le texte des résolutions adoptées.

I.

ORDRE DU JOUR ET PLAN DE TRAVAIL.

La première démarche de la Commission devait consister à se doter d'un règlement intérieur, à fixer son ordre du jour et à donner un plan à ses travaux.

Elle s'est trouvée en présence d'un ordre du jour admirablement préparé par de très sérieux et très complets rapports du Secrétariat, principalement sur la bibliographie, la coopération scientifique et interuniversitaire, auxquels sont venues s'ajouter de nombreuses propositions présentées, soit par écrit, soit verbalement par la plupart de ses membres; enfin, des propositions plus nombreuses encore lui sont venues de l'extérieur.

Il lui est donc apparu tout de suite combien la matière de ses délibérations était considérable et que la difficulté pour elle était de s'y orienter, d'y mettre de l'ordre, et de choisir.

Il était naturellement impossible à la Commission, durant les cinq jours qu'a duré sa première session, de pénétrer très avant dans l'immense domaine qui lui était assigné. C'est pourquoi elle s'est bornée, en général, à se fixer des principes, à déterminer ses méthodes de travail, à poser des limites à son activité. Mais elle devait avant tout se préoccuper de se renseigner elle-même, afin de donner une base scientifique à ses travaux.

II.

ENQUÊTE GÉNÉRALE SUR L'ÉTAT DE LA VIE INTELLECTUELLE.

Tel est le sens de sa première résolution qui propose au Conseil d'instituer immédiatement une enquête sur l'état du travail intellectuel dans tous les pays. Cette enquête, en effet, s'impose. Il est urgent de savoir à quel niveau se trouve, depuis la guerre, la vie intellectuelle, si ce niveau est toujours le même ou si, au contraire, il a, ce qui est à craindre, baissé. Bien des voix autorisées, un peu partout en Europe, se font entendre pour nous dire que des dangers certains menacent la civilisation, qu'on peut constater des symptômes de décadence et peut-être même des signes de régression. Sans doute, ces vues sont bien pessimistes; encore est-il bon de vérifier dans quelle mesure elles pourraient être exactes, est-il nécessaire de connaître les maux dont souffre la vie de l'esprit, les obstacles qui entourent le travail intellectuel, si l'on veut guérir les uns, écarter les autres. En tout cas, il serait difficile d'organiser toute coopération internationale sans un inventaire exact des éléments dont on dispose, des forces sur lesquelles on pourra s'appuyer.

Comment cette enquête générale devrait-elle être entreprise pour donner le maximum de résultats, et sur quoi la porter? Pour ne la rendre ni trop vaste, ni trop longue, il faudrait la limiter aux académies, sociétés savantes, universités, établissements scientifiques des divers pays. On se servirait pour cela de questionnaires établis afin de contenir tous les renseignements nécessaires sur le but, l'organisation, les travaux et le budget de ces diverses institutions. Il serait indispensable de pouvoir comparer leurs ressources d'avant la guerre à celles dont elles disposent maintenant.

Cette enquête générale devrait être complétée de la manière suivante: en premier lieu, on s'adresserait aux gouvernements eux-mêmes pour leur demander quels sont les règlements et les lois qui régissent dans chaque pays le travail intellectuel, et quelle est aussi la part qui lui est réservée dans leurs budgets.

En second lieu, l'enquête générale devrait être complétée par une enquête particulière sur les conditions économiques des travailleurs intellectuels eux-mêmes, et cela est logique. Mais, comme il est difficile d'embrasser du même coup l'ensemble de ces travailleurs, la Commission propose de commencer par des catégories limitées. Quant au choix de ces catégories, la Commission part du principe qu'elle n'a point à s'occuper directement du travailleur, mais du travail intellectuel. Or, ce qui compte avant tout pour la science, les lettres et les arts, ce sont les individus. La coopération serait donc impossible si l'on ne protégeait tout d'abord, parmi les travailleurs de l'esprit, ceux qui représentent l'art, la haute culture, la science désintéressée. C'est pourquoi la Commission recommande pour un premier sondage les artistes, peintres ou musiciens, et les professeurs d'université. Ajoutons qu'au cours de la discussion, M. William Martin a bien voulu offrir à la Commission les services du Bureau international du Travail dont il était le délégué.

En troisième lieu, il s'agirait d'être complètement orienté sur les efforts accomplis par les nations pour établir, étendre et régulariser leurs rapports intellectuels avec d'autres nations.

L'enquête générale sur la vie intellectuelle, même précisée comme on vient de le dire, et complétée par ces trois enquêtes complémentaires, ne manquera point d'apporter un très grand nombre de documents. Il s'agira d'en préparer à l'avance le classement. La Commission

propose la méthode suivante : *ordre par nations*, ce qui donnerait une idée exacte de l'activité intellectuelle en chaque pays ; *ordre par grandes divisions de la vie intellectuelle*, ce qui constituerait de très précieux dossiers sur le développement atteint par chaque branche de la vie intellectuelle dans le monde entier.

Pour conclure sur ce point, la Commission attire l'attention du Conseil sur l'importance et la valeur durable d'une telle enquête : ce serait pour elle la base scientifique de ses travaux, mais ce serait surtout la mesure de la température intellectuelle du monde et de l'état présent de la civilisation. La Commission prie donc respectueusement le Conseil de vouloir bien prendre les décisions nécessaires à ce sujet.

III.

SECOURS AUX PAYS OÙ LA VIE INTELLECTUELLE EST MENACÉE.

Une telle enquête n'est malheureusement pas nécessaire pour démontrer qu'il existe des pays, déjà trop nombreux, où la vie intellectuelle est menacée. Il y aurait donc quelque byzantinisme à discuter, plus ou moins abstraitement, de rapports interuniversitaires, lorsque d'anciennes et glorieuses universités sont près de fermer leurs portes, et d'échanges scientifiques, lorsque des académies ou des laboratoires de toute première importance vont être obligés de cesser leurs travaux. C'est pourquoi la Commission estime que son premier devoir est d'attirer l'attention du Conseil, comme de la Société des Nations tout entière, sur l'état de la vie intellectuelle dans une grande partie de l'Europe.

Il y a d'abord la Russie, où cet état semble presque désespéré. Mais il existe déjà des organisations de secours pour les intellectuels russes, et la Commission a pris connaissance avec un vif intérêt de leurs efforts. Aussi la Commission a-t-elle surtout songé aux nations, en partie nouvelles, qui s'étendent de la Baltique à la Mer Noire et à la mer Egée. Toutes, à des degrés divers, sont atteintes dans les organes de leur vie intellectuelle. Les unes sont atteintes légèrement et ne demandent guère que des facilités pour se procurer des livres et sortir de l'isolement. D'autres, en revanche, manquent, non seulement de livres, mais encore d'instruments pour leurs cliniques et leurs laboratoires, de locaux pour l'enseignement. Enfin, la troisième catégorie se trouve dans une détresse économique telle que toute vie intellectuelle risque de devenir très rapidement impossible. L'exemple le plus douloureux de cette dernière catégorie, c'est l'Autriche, en particulier Vienne, qui était encore, en 1914, un des principaux foyers de la civilisation européenne. C'est pourquoi la Commission a chargé l'un de ses membres de rédiger, dans le plus bref délai, un rapport sur la situation de Vienne et de l'Autriche, et sur les moyens d'intervenir avant qu'il soit trop tard, c'est-à-dire avant l'hiver. Car elle sait déjà qu'il suffirait de sommes en vérité minimales pour empêcher cette catastrophe. Un rapport analogue a été demandé pour la Pologne qui semble rentrer dans la deuxième catégorie.

Ces rapports seront soumis à l'Assemblée à titre d'exemple, en attendant de nouvelles investigations et pour servir de base à un plan d'action en faveur de tous les autres pays où les besoins du travail intellectuel sont à peu près semblables. Il est rare qu'une grande civilisation s'éteigne tout d'un coup ; en général, elle disparaît peu à peu par l'extinction progressive et plus ou moins rapide des foyers de culture. Ce fut le cas pour l'ancienne civilisation de l'Empire romain ; ce pourrait, si l'on n'y veille, être le cas pour la nôtre.

IV.

ORGANISATION INTERNATIONALE DE LA DOCUMENTATION SCIENTIFIQUE. (BIBLIOGRAPHIE.)

Ce n'est que plus tard, sitôt achevée l'enquête demandée par la Commission, qu'il sera possible d'établir la coopération internationale dans les grands domaines de la vie intellectuelle. Il n'en convenait pas moins d'étudier dès maintenant un plan d'ensemble et de suggérer, à l'occasion, quelques résolutions immédiatement ou facilement réalisables.

L'organisation internationale de la documentation scientifique, en particulier de la bibliographie, est à la base de toute coopération intellectuelle. Les rapports scientifiques en dépendent étroitement. Voilà pourquoi le monde savant est unanime à souhaiter qu'elle se réalise le plus tôt possible. La Commission a donc donné à ce problème la priorité sur celui des recherches scientifiques et des relations interuniversitaires. Mais elle a reconnu aussitôt qu'une étude complète était nécessaire, car il s'agit avant tout d'un problème technique.

Il importe, en effet, de distinguer la *bibliothèque rétrospective* qui donne, à propos d'une science ou d'un sujet déterminé, la liste de tous les travaux, en remontant en arrière à partir d'une date fixée, et la *bibliographie périodique* qui a pour but l'information rapide mettant, à intervalles réguliers, le savant au courant des nouvelles publications et des nouvelles découvertes. Or, c'est incontestablement celle-ci, c'est-à-dire l'échange rapide et régulier des renseignements scientifiques, principalement sous la forme d'analyses très sommaires (*abstracts*), qui importe pour commencer, car cet échange est une des conditions principales du progrès dans les sciences. Aussi, pour étudier les moyens de perfectionner la bibliographie périodique, la Commission propose-t-elle de désigner une sous-commission composée de deux de ses membres

auxquels seraient adjoints des experts, c'est-à-dire, d'une part des savants et de l'autre des spécialistes bibliographes. En effet, si, jusqu'à présent il y a toujours eu des lacunes dans tout système de bibliographie et tout service de renseignements scientifiques, cela tient à ce que les savants et les bibliographes n'ont pas suffisamment collaboré : une discussion tout à fait approfondie a mis ce point en lumière. La Commission a donc vu surtout l'organisation internationale de la bibliographie sous la forme d'une coopération de savants assistés de bibliographes dans chacun des domaines de la science. La Commission est partie de ce principe qu'il doit y avoir le moins d'obstacles et le plus de facilités possible en tout ce qui concerne les échanges. Sans doute, s'agira-t-il de coordonner ce qui existe et de sauver, en les améliorant quant à la méthode, des institutions menacées de disparaître. Ensuite, l'on pourra songer à des institutions nouvelles dont le besoin se fait déjà sentir. A côté des renseignements, il y a les livres et les périodiques qu'il est si difficile et qu'il serait si désirable de trouver réunis au même endroit. Il suffirait pour cela qu'une convention internationale rendît obligatoire le dépôt légal, à plusieurs exemplaires, de toute publication ; on constituerait ainsi un ou plusieurs centres internationaux de documentation.

Cette idée conduit tout naturellement à l'organisation internationale des échanges de publications. A ce propos, la Commission rappelle au Conseil et à l'Assemblée les deux Conventions de Bruxelles. Ces accords, relatifs précisément aux échanges internationaux, ont été signés le 15 mars 1886. Ils ne répondent plus, aujourd'hui, à tous les besoins. Il serait, par conséquent, nécessaire, ou bien de les renouveler, ou bien de les remplacer par d'autres conventions signées par tous les Etats. Celles-ci s'étendraient aux publications de toute nature et non pas aux seuls documents officiels. La franchise de port devrait y être spécifiée.

V.

LA COOPÉRATION INTERNATIONALE DANS LES RECHERCHES SCIENTIFIQUES

Comment, après avoir facilité l'échange des informations scientifiques, faciliter la coopération internationale dans les recherches scientifiques elles-mêmes ?

Constatons, tout d'abord, que les sciences exactes et naturelles sont mieux organisées internationalement que les autres sciences, comme l'histoire, la géographie, le droit et les lettres. Cela tient à ce que les sciences exactes ou naturelles, les premières surtout, sont universelles par leur essence, internationales par leur pratique : les chimistes dans le monde entier dépendent plus étroitement les uns des autres que les historiens. En revanche, le second groupe de sciences qu'on pourrait appeler peut-être les « sciences humaines », est celui où la coopération internationale est nécessairement, à l'exception du droit des gens, le moins développée. Cela se comprend si l'on envisage que l'histoire ou la littérature ont un caractère spécifiquement national. Pourtant, l'étude collective de l'histoire ou de la littérature est peut-être le meilleur moyen de réaliser l'idéal de la Société des Nations, en apprenant aux nations à se connaître les unes les autres dans ce qu'elles offrent à la fois de plus particulier et de plus humain. C'est par elles uniquement qu'on arrive à saisir dans son ensemble la civilisation universelle, et comment mieux définir la civilisation universelle qu'en l'appelant la collaboration harmonieuse de toutes les civilisations nationales ? Aussi, la Commission vouera-t-elle une attention toute spéciale à ce domaine des sciences ; elle compte, pour cela, faire appel avant tout aux universités.

La coopération dans les recherches scientifiques est le meilleur moyen de rapprocher les esprits en les faisant travailler à l'œuvre commune de la paix et de la civilisation. Mais il faut poser en principe qu'elle doit être organisée par les sociétés scientifiques elles-mêmes. La Commission suit et compte suivre avec autant d'attention que de sympathie le développement d'organisations internationales comme le Conseil international de recherches ou l'Union académique internationale dont l'activité couvre, ou peut couvrir, le domaine entier de la science. Mais elle est soucieuse de ne s'ingérer, ni dans l'organisation, ni dans les travaux des sociétés scientifiques, quelles qu'elles soient. En revanche, elle se sent le désir d'aider les associations scientifiques et les savants dans leurs travaux et dans leurs recherches, et de les aider d'une manière pratique. Or, il est malheureusement trop vrai qu'aujourd'hui, soit les associations scientifiques, soit les savants eux-mêmes, sont gênés dans leurs travaux par les difficultés économiques : combien de sociétés se sont dissoutes, combien d'instituts ont disparu ou sont menacés de disparaître, combien de savants ont toutes les peines du monde à continuer leurs recherches, faute de ressources ! Il y a là encore un dangereux symptôme d'appauvrissement intellectuel, ce qui amène infailliblement un appauvrissement moral. La Commission estime qu'on y remédierait en partie en instituant une caisse internationale, non pas de secours, mais de prêt et de crédit à l'usage des savants et des instituts scientifiques ; elle a confié à l'un de ses membres l'étude de ce projet.

C'est dans le domaine de l'archéologie qu'un accord international, dès maintenant, s'impose. Malgré le zèle apporté par beaucoup de nations à la découverte et à la conservation des monuments antiques, de trop nombreux documents de la plus haute valeur restent enfouis sous la terre, inaccessibles au monde savant, exposés à être détruits ou à disparaître peu à peu. Or, il s'agit, pour l'humanité d'un trésor commun ; il est urgent d'empêcher qu'on le dilapide. Comment y parvenir ? Après avoir dressé la liste des lieux où se trouvent des trésors archéologiques non encore découverts, il faudrait élaborer un plan général de recherches, fixer les règles et les méthodes applicables à ces recherches, et arriver ainsi à une Convention internationale sur la conservation et l'aliénation des monuments archéologiques. L'étude de cette question a été également confiée à un des membres de la Commission.

VI.

LA COOPÉRATION INTERNATIONALE DANS LE DOMAINE UNIVERSITAIRE.

Si la coopération internationale dans le domaine des recherches scientifiques est en partie assurée par les savants eux-mêmes, elle est nécessairement plus difficile à établir dans celui des universités. Et pourtant, le besoin de plus en plus s'en fait sentir. Il semble que l'heure approche où une initiative de la Société des Nations pourrait donner satisfaction à ce besoin. Une telle initiative correspond à l'idéal de la Société des Nations et à sa raison d'être.

La Société des Nations est l'organe central chargé de coordonner les rapports internationaux ; elle est donc certainement autorisée à connaître des rapports entre universités, sans pour cela s'ingérer dans l'enseignement universitaire lui-même, ni porter atteinte aux droits souverains des Etats et à l'autonomie des hautes écoles. En effet, les relations pacifiques entre les peuples seraient puissamment favorisées et la civilisation elle-même puissamment garantie, par tout ce qui contribuerait à instituer des rapports plus suivis et plus intimes entre les établissements d'enseignement supérieur des diverses nations.

* * *

De quel esprit devrait être animé cet effort de coopération interuniversitaire, et vers quels buts devrait-il tendre ? La Commission a estimé qu'il faut travailler au relèvement de l'enseignement supérieur en recherchant la plus haute qualité des études, en encourageant les travaux de science pure et favorisant la culture générale, afin de réagir contre les excès de la spécialisation et de l'utilitarisme professionnel. Mais la haute culture ne saurait être impunément séparée de l'éducation populaire. A une époque où il semble se creuser un abîme entre l'élite intellectuelle et les masses, ce qui constitue un véritable danger, il est absolument nécessaire de maintenir ou de rétablir le contact entre l'élite pensante et les peuples, d'instituer entre cette élite et ces peuples le plus grand nombre possible de communications et d'intermédiaires. Cela est encore une des exigences de la civilisation moderne. Les aspects purement scientifiques de l'éducation ne doivent pas être perdus de vue, car ce sont, en général, aux universités qu'il incombe de former le personnel enseignant dans chaque pays. Enfin, l'on a émis certaines considérations sur les rapports entre la science et la richesse, ou plutôt sur les devoirs de la richesse envers la science. On a rappelé combien l'initiative privée a toujours été un stimulant pour cette dernière ; si, a-t-on dit, la fortune doit avoir de plus en plus conscience de ses obligations humanitaires et sociales, aujourd'hui, moins que jamais, elle ne doit perdre de vue ses obligations intellectuelles.

* * *

Quant aux moyens d'assurer pratiquement la coopération interuniversitaire, de nombreuses idées ont été émises. On a suggéré des bourses internationales d'études. On a parlé de cours de vacances internationaux et surtout d'organiser dans les principales universités des cours destinés à faire mieux connaître les peuples les uns aux autres, à faire mieux comprendre leur caractère, leurs besoins et leurs intérêts vitaux. Un membre a plaidé en faveur de l'Université internationale qu'il a envisagée, pour un avenir encore lointain, comme un établissement permanent où, après avoir terminé leurs études dans les universités nationales, les jeunes gens seraient admis à acquérir, durant un semestre ou même un trimestre, la science des relations internationales.

Cette coopération peut donc se concevoir sous de multiples aspects. Mais les trois principaux sont les échanges de professeurs, les échanges d'étudiants, l'équivalence des études et de leurs résultats (diplômes et grades). Pour régler les échanges et réunir les renseignements, on pourrait envisager la création d'un Bureau international des universités. Quoi qu'il en soit, il est évident que tout ce qui ressemblerait à une centralisation schématique des rapports interuniversitaires est à écarter avec le plus grand soin. Toute organisation interuniversitaire est donc à baser sur la coopération libre.

* * *

Comment préparer une telle organisation ? Le moyen auquel s'est ralliée la Commission unanime, est un congrès international des universités, tant officielles que libres. Elle a reconnu, toutefois, que les circonstances politiques ne permettent pas d'envisager dès à présent la réunion d'un tel congrès. Mais ce que, dès à présent, l'on peut faire, c'est d'aborder l'étude approfondie de la coopération interuniversitaire elle-même. Elle a désigné pour cela une sous-commission choisie parmi ses membres, certaine que, par la force des choses, cette sous-commission se trouvera par ses études avoir préparé le travail du congrès ; elle serait chargée d'en arrêter le règlement intérieur, l'ordre du jour et les principes d'organisation, dès que le moment opportun serait arrivé et dès que le Conseil et l'Assemblée de la Société des Nations auraient approuvé le projet de sa convocation. Cette sous-commission, d'ailleurs, ne pourra travailler qu'en contact avec les universités. Elle commencera donc par leur demander leurs points de vue et les encourager à organiser entre elles des congrès par nation ou groupe de nations (congrès régionaux, dans le sens que l'article 21 du Pacte attribue à cet adjectif).

VII.

QUESTIONS DIVERSES.

La Commission, dans sa dernière séance, s'est occupée des trois problèmes suivants :

1. Le premier, en connexion intime avec ce qui précède, concerne la propriété intellectuelle, en général, et scientifique en particulier. La propriété intellectuelle, en général, n'est pas suffisamment assurée par les législations existantes, et la propriété scientifique ne l'est pas du tout. Or, il faut estimer qu'en matière de découvertes scientifiques, l'idée même a le droit d'être protégée, et non pas seulement son application. C'est pourquoi la Commission a cru bon de désigner, parmi ses membres, une sous-commission pour étudier ce problème. Elle a prié cette sous-commission de se mettre en rapports avec le Bureau international de la propriété littéraire et artistique, ayant son siège à Berne, ainsi qu'avec les autres institutions analogues.

A ce propos, elle a pris avec grand intérêt connaissance des projets élaborés par la C. T. I. (Confédération française des travailleurs intellectuels).

2. Un second problème a préoccupé la Commission, ou plutôt lui a été posé : « Appel aux savants du monde entier pour les prier de rendre publiques leurs découvertes sur les gaz toxiques, afin de réduire au minimum la probabilité de leur emploi dans une guerre future. »

Il s'agit d'une résolution prise par l'Assemblée, le 1^{er} octobre 1921, et transmise par la Commission temporaire mixte pour la réduction des armements à la Commission de coopération intellectuelle. Celle-ci, après avoir entendu quelques-uns de ses membres spécialement qualifiés, n'a pu que souligner l'inefficacité, voire même les dangers d'une telle mesure, et que se déclarer incapable de suggérer une méthode quelconque d'exécution.

3. Enfin, elle a entendu un rapport du professeur Gilbert Murray sur l'insuffisance des renseignements que les pays possèdent les uns sur les autres. Cette insuffisance, dont la presse est en grande partie responsable, et qui entretient les malentendus, attise les hostilités, constitue un réel danger pour la coopération intellectuelle. La Commission a dû se convaincre qu'une intervention de sa part la ferait sortir de son cadre. Elle n'en a pas moins prié l'un de ses membres, le professeur et sénateur Ruffini, de communiquer à toutes fins utiles le rapport Murray et le procès-verbal de la discussion aux différentes Associations pour la Société des Nations, dont M. Ruffini préside l'Union internationale.

* * *

Tels sont le résumé des dix séances tenues par la Commission de coopération intellectuelle et le commentaire de ses résolutions. La Commission, après avoir résolu de son mieux les questions préliminaires à ses travaux et commencé l'examen des différents problèmes qui lui ont été posés, a l'honneur de soumettre dans ce rapport à la Société des Nations, les conclusions provisoires auxquelles elle est parvenue, les principes qu'elle s'est fixés en harmonie avec le Pacte et la raison d'être de la Société des Nations, et le programme qu'elle s'est tracé pour la continuation de ses travaux.

En élaborant ce programme, la Commission s'est d'ailleurs préoccupée d'épargner à la Société des Nations toute dépense inutile et d'observer le principe de la plus stricte économie. L'institution de trois sous-commissions, qui lui paraît indispensable pour le but à atteindre, aura pour effet de rendre moins fréquentes les réunions de la Commission plénière qui seraient beaucoup plus coûteuses. Ces sous-commissions pourront d'ailleurs souvent travailler par correspondance et faire appel à des experts.

Le Président :
(Signé) H. BERGSON.

Le Rapporteur :
(Signé) G. DE REYNOLD.

Le Secrétaire :
(Signé) O. DE HALECKI.

Annexe.

RÉSOLUTIONS ADOPTÉES PAR LA COMMISSION.

I.

ETAT DE LA VIE INTELLECTUELLE.

1. La Commission prie le Conseil de la Société des Nations d'instituer une enquête sur la situation du travail intellectuel dans les divers pays, sur les maux dont souffre la vie intellectuelle et les remèdes qui sont proposés ; cette enquête viserait notamment les conditions économiques des travailleurs de l'esprit.

2. La Commission attire expressément l'attention du Conseil de la Société des Nations sur l'état désespéré de la vie intellectuelle dans certains pays d'Europe, et sur l'urgente nécessité d'intervenir.

La Commission est prête à fournir au Conseil ou à l'Assemblée toutes indications précises à cet égard, comme à lui servir d'intermédiaire pour toutes les mesures auxquelles il pourrait se rallier.

3. Afin de pouvoir fournir à l'Assemblée de la Société des Nations les indications précises, mentionnées au paragraphe 2, la Commission décide :

a) de prier M. de Reynold de bien vouloir préparer, dans un délai aussi bref que possible, un exposé documentaire sur l'état de la vie intellectuelle en Autriche, en utilisant les nombreux renseignements qu'il a rassemblés à cet égard et en se mettant en rapport direct avec les personnalités les plus compétentes de ce pays ;

b) de prier M^{me} Curie-Skłodowska de bien vouloir se charger d'un travail analogue au sujet de la Pologne ;

c) de soumettre à l'Assemblée de la Société des Nations ces deux exposés à titre d'exemple qui pourrait servir de base pour l'élaboration d'un plan d'action en faveur de certains autres pays où les besoins du travail intellectuel sont à peu près semblables.

II.

BIBLIOGRAPHIE.

1. La Commission, considérant que le savoir humain est par excellence un bien commun à toutes les nations, estime indispensable d'en assurer la conservation pour le passé et la diffusion rapide pour l'avenir.

2. Aux fins de rechercher les meilleurs moyens pratiques d'atteindre ce double but, la Commission constitue une Sous-Commission spéciale composée de M^{me} Curie et M. Destrée.

3. Cette Sous-Commission pourra s'adjoindre un certain nombre (trois à cinq) de personnalités appartenant aux deux catégories d'intellectuels dont la collaboration paraît nécessaire, bibliographes d'un côté, savants spécialistes de l'autre, dont elle jugera utile le concours permanent.

4. Cette Sous-Commission se réunira sous la présidence de M. Bergson aux date et lieu à fixer par celui-ci dans sa convocation.

5. La Sous-Commission pourra encore s'entourer d'autres avis, et notamment des sentiments de groupements scientifiques.

III.

ECHANGES INTERNATIONAUX.

La Commission prie le Conseil d'attirer l'attention de l'Assemblée de la Société des Nations sur les conventions internationales relatives aux échanges internationaux, passées à Bruxelles le 15 mars 1886. La coopération intellectuelle serait grandement aidée par l'extension de pareilles conventions. Il serait à désirer que les mesures qui y sont prévues reçoivent leur complète application, et qu'elles soient améliorées et étendues, notamment par l'octroi de la franchise postale et par l'extension à toutes les publications, même non officielles.

IV.

RECHERCHES SCIENTIFIQUES.

La Commission estime que la coopération dans le domaine des recherches scientifiques représente, dans l'ensemble de la coopération intellectuelle internationale, le meilleur moyen de rapprocher les esprits en les faisant travailler à l'œuvre commune de la paix et de la civilisation. Elle souhaite que cette coopération se développe, mais elle pose en principe qu'elle doit être l'œuvre des sociétés scientifiques elles-mêmes. Par conséquent, la Commission,

soucieuse de ne s'ingérer, ni dans leur organisation, ni dans leurs travaux, ne s'en déclare pas moins désireuse de leur assurer pratiquement tout son concours. Elle maintient donc le problème des rapports scientifiques à l'ordre du jour de sa prochaine session.

En vue de faciliter les recherches scientifiques, la Commission estime qu'on pourrait mettre à l'étude un projet de caisse internationale de prêts et de crédit.

V.

ENTENTE INTERNATIONALE POUR LES RECHERCHES ARCHÉOLOGIQUES ET LA PUBLICATION DE LEURS RÉSULTATS.

Malgré le zèle apporté par beaucoup de nations à la découverte et à la conservation des monuments de l'antiquité, de nombreux documents de la plus haute valeur restent encore enfouis sous la terre ou tenus hors de la portée du monde savant, ou exposés à être détruits et à disparaître. Une collaboration internationale en ces matières est donc nécessaire et légitime ; en fait, elle est déjà pratiquée entre certaines nations, mais aucune réglementation internationale n'est intervenue pour une juste distribution de ce travail, des charges et des avantages qui en résultent. On pourrait, en conséquence, concevoir une entente internationale :

1. pour dresser le bilan des trésors archéologiques non encore découverts ;
2. pour faire un plan général de recherches ;
3. pour fixer les règles de méthode concernant les recherches ;
4. pour établir une réglementation internationale touchant la conservation et l'aliénation des monuments archéologiques.

VI.

COOPÉRATION INTERUNIVERSITAIRE.

1. Dès que les circonstances permettront de réunir un congrès international de toutes les universités, tant officielles que libres, de tous les pays, la Commission estime qu'il serait utile de le convoquer afin de consulter les intéressés sur les possibilités de coopération intellectuelle.

2. La Commission confie à une sous-commission composée de MM. de Castro, Destrée, Millikan, Murray et de Reynold, le soin de poursuivre, selon les directions ci-après, l'œuvre préparatoire d'un pareil congrès.

Cette sous-commission sera présidée par M. Bergson et convoquée par lui aux lieu et date qu'il jugera indiqués.

Elle arrêtera notamment le règlement intérieur du Congrès éventuel, son ordre du jour, ainsi que les principes généraux de son organisation.

3. La Coopération interuniversitaire peut se concevoir sous de multiples aspects. On commencera par examiner, en vue de réalisations prochaines, les points suivants : échanges de professeurs, échanges d'étudiants, équivalence des études et des diplômes universitaires, institution de bourses internationales, de cours de vacances internationaux et d'un Bureau central d'information universitaire, ces points ne pouvant être toutefois examinés qu'en respectant le droit souverain des nations à légiférer quant à leur enseignement, ainsi que l'autonomie des universités.

4. Toutes les universités seront avisées de la présente résolution. Elles sont invitées à faire connaître au Secrétariat de la Société des Nations, pour être transmis à la sous-commission, leur sentiment sur les points indiqués au paragraphe 3. Il leur est conseillé de ne faire pareille communication qu'après en avoir conféré avec les autres universités de leur pays ou d'un groupe de pays.

VII.

PROTECTION DE LA PROPRIÉTÉ INTELLECTUELLE.

La Commission, considérant que la propriété intellectuelle n'est pas suffisamment protégée et que, particulièrement, la propriété scientifique ne l'est actuellement pas du tout, charge une sous-commission, composée de MM. Destrée, Millikan, Ruffini et de Torres Quevedo, d'étudier les moyens par lesquels cette protection pourrait être assurée.

Cette sous-commission se mettra en rapport avec les organisations qu'elle jugera capables de lui donner des informations utiles, en premier lieu avec le Bureau international de la propriété littéraire et artistique à Berne, ainsi qu'avec l'Union internationale de la Chimie pure et appliquée et avec la Confédération française des Travailleurs intellectuels.

VIII.

GAZ TOXIQUES ET GUERRE CHIMIQUE.

La Commission de coopération intellectuelle regrette de ne pas être à même de suggérer des méthodes permettant d'amener les savants de tous les pays à publier leurs découvertes en matière de gaz toxiques et de guerre chimique.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL
CO-OPERATION APPROVED BY THE COUNCIL
ON SEPTEMBER 13TH 1922

In order to carry out the task which the Assembly and the Council of the League of Nations entrusted to it, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation met at Geneva on August 1st, 1922.

There were present :

M ^{lle} BONNEVIE,	Professor of Zoology at Christiania University, Norwegian Delegate to the Assembly of the League of Nations.
Mme CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA,	Professor of Physics at the University of Paris, Honorary Professor of the University of Warsaw. Member of the "Académie de Médecine" at Paris, of the Polish Academy at Warsaw and of the Scientific Society at Warsaw.
M. D. N. BANNERJEA,	Professor of Political Economy at the University of Calcutta.
M. H. BERGSON,	Honorary Professor of Philosophy at the "Collège de France," Member of the "Académie française," Member of the "Académie des Sciences morales et politiques."
M. A. DE CASTRO,	Professor of Clinical Medicine and Director of the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Rio de Janeiro.
M. J. DESTRÉE,	Former Minister for Sciences and Arts, Member of the "Académie belge de littérature et de langue française."
M. G. E. HALE,	Director of the Mount-Wilson Observatory, Foreign Member of the Royal Society, Foreign Associate of the Institute of France, Member of the Executive Committee of the International Research Council, Honorary President of the National Research Council of the United States.
M. G. A. MURRAY,	Professor of Greek Philology at Oxford University, Member of the Council of the British Academy, Delegate of South Africa to the Assembly of the League of Nations.
M. G. DE REYNOLD,	Professor of French Literature at the University of Berne.
M. F. RUFFINI,	Professor of Ecclesiastical Law at the University of Turin, Former Minister of Public Education, President of the Royal Academy of Turin, President of the Union of the League of Nations Associations.
M. L. DE TORRES-QUEVEDO,	Director of the Madrid Electro-Mechanical Laboratory, Member of the Royal Academy of Science, Madrid, Member of the Committee for the Extension of Scientific Studies.

Professor A. EINSTEIN was prevented from assisting in the work of the Committee owing to his absence on a scientific mission to Japan.

As substitute for Dr. HALE, who was prevented from being present at all the meetings :

Dr. R. A. MILLIKAN,	Director of the Norman Bridge Laboratory of Physics at the Californian Technological Institute, Vice-Chairman of the National Research Council of the United States, Foreign Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences, Member of the International Research Council, American Exchange Professor to Belgium.
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There were present at the meetings :

Dr. I. NITOBÉ,	Under-Secretary-General of the League of Nations. Professor at the University of Tokio, instructed to collaborate in the work of the Committee.
M. J. LUCHAIRE,	Inspector-General of Public Education in France, accompanying M. Bergson as expert.
M. W. MARTIN,	Technical Adviser to the International Labour Office.

The following acted as Secretary to the Commission :

M. O. DE HALECKI,	Professor at the University of Warsaw, former Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy, Member of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.
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and as Recording Secretary :

M. A. TOLÉDANO.	Member of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.
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The Committee appointed M. BERGSON as Chairman of the Committee, Professor MURRAY as Vice-Chairman and M. DE REYNOLD as Rapporteur.

The Committee was in session from Tuesday, August 1st, until Saturday, August 5th, and held ten meetings. It has the honour to submit to the Council the conclusions which it reached. The resolutions adopted by the Committee and embodying these conclusions will be found at the end of this report.

I.

AGENDA AND PROGRAMME OF WORK.

The Committee first decided upon its agenda and drew up a programme of work.

Its agenda had already been outlined in the very carefully considered and complete reports so ably prepared by the Secretariat, dealing principally with bibliography and scientific and inter-university co-operation. In addition to these reports a large number of proposals had been submitted either in writing or verbally by most of the members of the Committee, and still more numerous proposals had been received from other sources.

It immediately became evident that there would be very considerable material for discussion and that the principal difficulty would be to sort the material received and to arrange and select the subject-matter.

It was clearly impossible for the Committee, during the five days of its first session, to make any very great progress in the immense field of work assigned to it. For this reason it confined itself, in general, to establishing principles and deciding on its method of work and to defining the limits of its activity. Its first concern, however, was to obtain information with a view to placing its work on a scientific basis.

II.

GENERAL ENQUIRY INTO THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL LIFE.

The general purport of the first resolution adopted by the Committee proposes that the Council shall immediately institute an enquiry into the conditions of intellectual work in all countries. This enquiry is very necessary. It is a matter of immediate importance to know at what level intellectual life has been maintained since the war, and whether this level has remained stationary or whether, on the contrary, it has fallen—as is greatly to be feared. All over Europe many who are entitled to speak with authority are raising their voices to warn us that real dangers are menacing civilisation, and that decadence and possibly even signs of retrogression are noticeable. Doubtless these views are very pessimistic, but it would be well to discover to what extent they may be true, to obtain knowledge concerning the evils affecting mental life, and the obstacles hampering intellectual effort, if we wish to remedy the former and to remove the latter. In any case, it would be difficult to organise international co-operation of any sort unless we possess some precise and detailed information concerning the means at our disposal and the forces upon which we may rely.

How should this general enquiry be undertaken with a view to producing the best results, and what should be its scope? In order that it may not become too vast or too lengthy, it must be limited to academies, learned societies, universities and scientific institutions in various countries. For this purpose questionnaires should be employed, drawn up in such a way as to contain all necessary information concerning the aims, organisation, work and financial resources of these various institutions. It is of the highest importance that we should be able to compare their pre-war resources with those at present available.

This general enquiry should, moreover, be completed in the following manner:

First, information should be sought from the Governments themselves concerning the regulations and laws governing intellectual work in each country, and the amount which is set aside for this purpose in their respective budgets.

Secondly, the general enquiry should be supplemented by a special enquiry into the economic condition of intellectual workers themselves. As it is difficult to deal with all of these workers in one and the same enquiry, the Committee would propose to commence with certain limited categories. As regards the choice of these categories, the Committee is acting on the principle that it has not to concern itself so much with the worker as with his intellectual work.

It is, above all, the individual who counts in science, in literature and in the fine arts. Co-operation would therefore be impossible unless protection were afforded from the beginning to those who, among mind-workers, represent fine art, the highest education, and disinterested science. For this reason the Committee recommends that the first researches be conducted among artists, either painters or musicians, and University professors. It should be added that in the course of the discussion on this question, M. William Martin was good enough to place the services of the International Labour Office, which he represented, at the disposal of the Committee.

Thirdly, complete and precise information should be obtained concerning any efforts made by various countries to establish, extend or regulate their intellectual relations with other countries.

The general enquiry into the conditions of intellectual life, supplemented by these three additional enquiries, even when limited in the manner described above, will inevitably involve

the consideration of a large number of documents. It will be necessary to prepare a system of classification in advance ; the Committee proposes the following method :

Arrangement according to nationality. This would give an exact idea of the intellectual activities of each country ;

Arrangement according to the major divisions of intellectual life. This would constitute a very valuable collection of evidence concerning the development attained in every branch of intellectual life throughout the world.

Finally, the Committee would draw the attention of the Council to the importance and enduring value of an enquiry of this nature ; it would furnish a scientific basis for the work of the Committee, but, even more, it would furnish means for forming a correct idea as to the intellectual temperature of the world and the present state of civilisation.

The Committee therefore respectfully asks the Council to be good enough to adopt the decisions necessary for this purpose.

III.

ASSISTANCE TO NATIONS WHOSE INTELLECTUAL LIFE IS IN DANGER.

There is unfortunately no need of an enquiry to prove that there are countries — too many indeed — whose intellectual life is in danger. It would be a mere exercise in dialectics to engage in more or less abstract discussions on inter-university relations when ancient and famous universities are on the point of closing their doors, and on the exchange of scientific information when academies and laboratories of the first rank will soon be obliged to discontinue their work. For this reason the Committee considers that its first duty is to draw the attention of the Council and also of the whole League to the conditions which govern intellectual life throughout a large part of Europe.

First of all there is Russia, where these conditions would appear to be almost desperate. Organisations already exist, however, for the relief of the Russian intelligentsia, and the Committee has noted their efforts with keen interest. Accordingly, the Committee gave special consideration to those nations — including some of recent origin — which extend from the Baltic to the Black Sea and the Ægean Sea. In all these nations the organs of intellectual life have suffered injury in varying degrees. Some have been affected only slightly and require little more than facilities for obtaining books and for escaping from their isolation. There are others which lack not only books but also instruments for their clinics and their laboratories and buildings where instruction may be given. Finally, there is a third category of nations in a state of such acute economic distress that there is a risk of all intellectual life rapidly becoming impossible. The most painful example of this last category is Austria, and in particular Vienna, which in 1914 was still one of the principal centres of European civilisation. For this reason the Committee has authorised one of its members to draw up, at the earliest possible moment, a report on the situation in Vienna and in Austria, and on the possibility of intervening before it was too late, that is to say before the winter. The Committee is convinced that a very small sum of money would be sufficient to prevent this catastrophe. A similar report has been asked for in the case of Poland which would appear to be representative of the second category.

These reports will be submitted to the Assembly as examples while other enquiries are being made, and they will serve as a basis for a plan of action on behalf of all those countries in which the requirements of intellectual labour are more or less similar. Rarely does any great civilisation die out suddenly ; it more often disappears gradually through the progressive and more or less rapid extinction of its centres of learning. This was the case with the ancient civilisation of the Roman Empire ; and it may also be the case with our own civilisation if we take no heed.

IV.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATION OF SCIENTIFIC DOCUMENTATION (BIBLIOGRAPHY).

It is only later, when the enquiry asked for by the Committee has been carried out, that it will become possible to establish international co-operation over the whole range of intellectual life. Nevertheless, it appeared well to study forthwith some general plan and to submit certain resolutions which can be carried out immediately and without difficulty.

The international organisation for scientific documentation, particularly bibliography, is essential for all intellectual co-operation ; scientific relations are very intimately connected with this question. For this reason, the world of science unanimously desires that such an organisation may be established as soon as possible. The Committee therefore gave this problem priority over scientific research and inter-university relations. It immediately recognised the fact that a complete investigation was required, for this problem is, above all, a technical one.

It is, indeed, a question of distinguishing retrospective bibliography, which gives, in relation to a science or one particular subject, a list of all publications connected therewith, starting from a definite date and working backwards, from periodical bibliography, which aims at giving rapid information by keeping scientists informed at regular intervals of new publications and new discoveries. It is undoubtedly the latter—that is to say, the rapid and regular exchange of scientific information, principally in the form of very brief analyses (abstracts)—which is the more urgent, since exchange of this kind is one of the principal conditions of

scientific progress. In order to study methods for improving periodical bibliography, the Committee therefore proposes to appoint a Sub-Committee consisting of two of its members, who should have the assistance of experts ; that is to say, of both scientists and bibliographical specialists. If there have always been until now certain lacunæ in all systems of bibliography, and all organisations for scientific information, it is because scientists and bibliographers have not collaborated sufficiently ; this point was clearly established after a very exhaustive discussion. The Committee therefore approached the subject of international organisation of bibliography as a question of co-operation between scientists, assisted by bibliographers concerned with every branch of science. The Committee based its decision on the principle that there must be as few obstacles and as many facilities as possible in all matters concerned with exchange of information. Doubtless existing institutions must be co-ordinated, and those threatened with extinction must be saved by carrying out improvements in their methods. Some attention must then be given to the formation of new institutions, the need for which has already been felt. There is, moreover, the question of books and periodicals, which are so rarely found collected in one spot, although this would be most desirable. To obtain such a result, it would be sufficient for an international convention to make it a legal obligation for several copies of every publication to be stored ; in this way one or several international centres for documentary reference would be established.

This proposal leads, by a natural sequence, to the consideration of an international organisation for the exchange of publications. In connection with this, the Committee begs to draw the attention of the Council and the Assembly to the two Brussels Conventions. These agreements, which deal with this very subject of international exchange, were signed on March 15th, 1886. To-day they no longer correspond to the requirements. Consequently, it is desirable that they should be renewed or else replaced by other Conventions signed by all countries. These Conventions should be framed so as to include publications of every kind and not merely official documents and should specifically provide for freedom from postage dues.

V.

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION IN SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

After the exchange of scientific information has been facilitated, how can international co-operation in scientific research be promoted ?

We note first of all that exact and natural sciences are better organised internationally than other sciences, such as history, geography, law and literature. This is explained by the fact that the exact and natural sciences, above all the former, are, by nature, universal and, in practice, international ; chemists throughout the whole world depend more closely upon one another than do historians. The second group of sciences, which might perhaps be called “ the humane sciences ”, is that in which international co-operation is necessarily least developed, except possibly in the case of international law. This will be understood when it is remembered that history or literature is definitely national in character, and yet the collective study of history or of literature is perhaps the best way to realise the League’s ideals, by bringing all nations into closer contact with one another so that each may learn what the others have to offer in the way of special and of human interest. It is only through these sciences that world-wide civilisation can be understood as a whole, and, indeed, what better definition of world-wide civilisation can be found than a harmonious collaboration of all national civilisations ? The Committee will therefore devote particular attention to this branch of science, and it intends first of all to address an appeal to the universities.

Co-operation in scientific research is the best way to draw human minds together, by setting them to work in the common cause of peace and of civilisation. The principle should, however, be laid down that this co-operation must be organised by the various scientific societies themselves. The Committee is following, and will continue to follow with close attention and sympathy, the development of international organisations such as the International Research Council or the International Union of Academics, whose activities include, or are capable of including, the entire field of science. The Committee is careful not to interfere either with the organisation or with the work of any scientific societies whatever. It would wish, rather, to assist scientific associations and scientists in their work and in their research, and to assist them in a practical way ; it is unfortunately only too true that to-day both scientific associations and scientists themselves are hampered in their work by difficulties of a financial nature. How many societies have been dissolved ; how many institutions have disappeared or are in danger of disappearing ; how many men of science are finding it the hardest thing in the world to continue their research work, owing to lack of means ! These are, moreover, dangerous symptoms of intellectual impoverishment, which will inevitably lead to moral impoverishment. The Committee considers that this state of affairs may partly be rectified by setting up an international fund, not for affording relief but for providing loans and credits for the benefit of scientists and scientific institutions ; it instructed one of its members to examine this scheme.

A branch of science concerning which some international agreement should speedily be reached is archæology. In spite of the energy displayed by many nations in the discovery and preservation of ancient monuments, far too much evidence of the highest value remains buried and is inaccessible to the world of science, besides being exposed to the danger of destruction or gradual disintegration. These are treasures which humanity possesses in common ; and their preservation is of urgent importance. How is this to be accomplished ? When a list has been compiled of places where there exist archæological treasures which have not yet been

brought to light, a general plan of research will have to be prepared. The rules and methods to be applied to this research will have to be decided upon, and an International Convention concerning the preservation and alienation of archæological monuments will then be within reach. The investigation of this question was also entrusted to one of the members of the Committee.

VI.

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION BETWEEN UNIVERSITIES.

International co-operation in the sphere of scientific research is partly assured by scientists themselves, but it is more difficult to establish this co-operation between Universities. Yet the need for it is becoming more and more noticeable. It appears that the time is coming when the League of Nations might take the initiative to satisfy this demand. Such an initiative would be in keeping with the League's ideals and with the reasons which gave rise to its birth. The League of Nations is the central organisation whose duty it is to co-ordinate international relations ; it is therefore certainly entitled to regulate relations between Universities without interfering in the matter of university instruction and without encroaching on the sovereign rights of States and the autonomy of the seats of learning. The cause of international friendship would, in fact, be greatly strengthened, and civilisation itself would be more firmly established, by any act which would contribute to more permanent and more intimate relations between institutions for higher education in the different countries.

* * *

What is the spirit which should animate this effort for inter-university co-operation, and what is the end which it must have in view ? The Committee considers that it is necessary to improve higher education by seeking to perfect the quality of study, by stimulating pure scientific work and by increasing general learning, with a view to combating an excess of specialisation and professionalism. Higher education, however, cannot with impunity be separated from popular education. At a time when the gap between the intellectual aristocracy and the masses appears to be widening — a fact which constitutes a real danger — it is absolutely necessary to maintain or to re-establish contact between the aristocracy of intellect and the people, to establish between them the greatest possible number of channels for intercourse and approach. This is another requirement of modern civilisation. The purely scientific aspects of education must not be lost sight of, for it is mainly upon the Universities that the duty falls of forming the teaching personnel in every country.

Finally, certain opinions have been expressed concerning the relationship between science and wealth, or rather concerning the duties of wealth towards science ; our attention has been called to the fact that private initiative has always, to a high degree, acted as a stimulant for the latter ; and it has been said that if the rich should be increasingly conscious of their humanitarian and social obligations, to-day, more than ever before, should they be mindful of their intellectual obligations.

* * *

As regards practical means for carrying out inter-university co-operation, numerous suggestions were made. International scholarships were proposed. International vacation courses were mentioned, and, above all, it was advocated that courses of lectures should be arranged in the leading Universities with the object of promoting mutual acquaintanceship among the nations and creating a better understanding as to their respective characteristics, needs and vital interests. One member of the Committee pleaded in favour of an International University which he had in view, in the still distant future, as a permanent Institution to which young people who had completed their studies in national universities should be admitted in order that they might obtain, in the course of two terms, or even of one, some knowledge of the science of international relations.

The co-operation with which we are concerned might then be regarded in a number of different ways, but its three principal divisions are the exchange of professors, the exchange of students, and the standardisation of studies and results (diplomas and degrees). In order to regulate this exchange and to collect information, the establishment of an International University Bureau might well be considered. In any case it is clear that anything resembling a systematic centralisation of inter-university relations is to be avoided with the greatest care.

All schemes for the organisation of inter-university relations should therefore be based upon the principle of free co-operation.

* * *

How should the way be prepared for an organisation of this kind ? The method of which the Committee unanimously approved was that of an International Congress of State and free universities. It recognised, however, that the political situation did not at present permit of the convening of a congress of this nature. It is quite possible, however, to undertake immediately an exhaustive study of the question of inter-university co-operation. For this purpose it has appointed a Sub-Committee from among its own members, as it feels assured that this Sub-Committee, by the very nature of the case, will find that it will have prepared the work of the Congress ; the duties of the Sub-Committee would be to draw up the rules of procedure for the Congress and to determine the agenda and the main outlines of its organisation as soon as the propitious moment has arrived and the Council and the Assembly of the League of

Nations have approved the scheme for convening it. This Sub-Committee can only carry on its work by keeping in close contact with the Universities themselves. It should therefore begin by ascertaining their opinions on the subject and by encouraging them to organise among themselves either national congresses or congresses of groups of nations (regional congresses, within the meaning attributed to this adjective by Article 21 of the Covenant).

VII.

MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS.

The Committee, at its last meeting, dealt with the three following problems :

1. The first, which is intimately connected with what has gone before, is concerned with intellectual property in general and scientific property in particular. Intellectual property, in general, is not sufficiently safeguarded by existing legislation, and scientific property is not safeguarded at all. In the matter of scientific discoveries it should be held that the idea itself is entitled to be safeguarded and not merely the application of the idea. Accordingly, the Committee decided to appoint from among its members a Sub-Committee to study this question. It requested this Sub-Committee to get into touch with the "Bureau international de la propriété littéraire et artistique" at Berne, and with other institutions of a similar nature. In this connection it has noted with great interest the schemes elaborated by the French Confederation of Intellectual Workers.

2. A second problem with which the Committee was concerned — or, rather, which it had been asked to consider — was "An appeal to the scientific men of the world to publish their discoveries in poison gas so as to minimise the likelihood of their being used in any future war."

The above is a resolution adopted by the Assembly on October 1st, 1921, and referred by the Temporary Mixed Commission for the Reduction of Armaments to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. The latter, after listening to the remarks of some of its members who were specially qualified to speak on the subject, was unable to do more than call attention to the futility and even the danger of such action and to declare its inability to suggest any method whatsoever for giving effect to the proposal.

3. Finally, the Committee listened to a report by Professor Gilbert Murray on the inadequacy of the information which countries possess concerning each other. This inadequacy, for which the Press is largely responsible, which gives rise to misunderstandings and inflames animosity, constitutes a real danger to intellectual co-operation. The Committee came to the conclusion that any intervention on its part would be outside its competence. Nevertheless, it asked one of its members—Professor Senator Ruffini—to transmit the Murray Report and the minutes of the discussion to the various League of Nations Associations — of whose Central Union M. Ruffini is President — for their consideration.

* * *

The above is an epitomy of the results obtained during the ten meetings of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and a commentary on its resolutions. The Committee, having solved, to the best of its ability, the various problems which formed the introduction to its work, and having commenced to examine the different questions which have been laid before it, has the honour to submit to the League of Nations in this report the provisional conclusions which it has reached, the principles which it has laid down for its guidance in accordance with the Covenant and the character of the League of Nations, and the programme which it has drawn up for the continuation of its work.

In drawing up this programme, the Committee has endeavoured to spare the League of Nations all unnecessary expense and to adhere to the principles of rigid economy. The appointment of three Sub-Committees, which the Committee considered to be indispensable in order to attain the end in view, will mean less frequent meetings of the Plenary Committee, which are much more costly. These Sub-Committees will, moreover, be able to conduct much of their work by correspondence and with the assistance of experts.

The President,
(Signed) H. BERGSON.

The Rapporteur,
(Signed) G. DE REYNOLD.

The Secretary,
(Signed) O. DE HALECKI.

Annex.

TEXT OF RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE COMMITTEE.

I.

SITUATION OF INTELLECTUAL LIFE.

(1) The Committee requests the Council of the League of Nations to institute an enquiry into the conditions of intellectual work in various countries, the evils from which intellectual life is suffering and the remedies suggested. This enquiry would deal more particularly with the economic position of intellectual workers.

(2) The Committee expressly calls the attention of the Council of the League of Nations to the desperate situation of intellectual life in certain European countries and the urgent need of intervention.

The Committee is prepared to supply the Council or the Assembly with all detailed information in this connection and to act as its intermediary in all measures which it might be able to adopt.

(3) In order to be in a position to supply the Assembly of the League of Nations with the detailed information mentioned in paragraph (2), the Committee decides :

(a) To request M. de Reynold to prepare, at the earliest possible moment, a statement, with documentary evidence, on the condition of intellectual life in Austria, making use of the abundant information which he has collected on this subject and entering into direct relations with the most competent authorities in that country ;

(b) To request M^{me} Curie-Skodowska to undertake a similar task with regard to Poland ;

(c) To submit to the Assembly of the League of Nations these two statements as models, which might be used as a basis for preparing a plan of action on behalf of certain other countries where the requirements of intellectual labour are practically the same.

II.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

(1) Whereas knowledge is pre-eminently the common possession of all nations, the Committee considers it essential to provide for the preservation of knowledge accumulated in the past and for its rapid dissemination in the future.

(2) With a view to ascertaining the best practical methods of attaining this two fold aim, the Committee decides to set up a special Sub-Committee composed of M^{me} Curie and M. Destrée.

(3) The Sub-Committee may add to its members a certain number (three to five) of persons belonging to the two classes of intellectual workers—bibliographers and scholars in special branches of knowledge—whose collaboration appears necessary and whose permanent assistance may be considered useful.

(4) This Sub-Committee will meet, under the chairmanship of M. Bergson, at a date and place to be fixed by him in his notice convening the meeting.

(5) The Sub-Committee may also obtain the views of other parties, and more particularly the opinions of scientific bodies.

III.

INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGES.

The Committee begs the Council to draw the attention of the Assembly of the League of Nations to the International Conventions relating to international exchanges, adopted at Brussels on March 15th, 1886. The work of intellectual co-operation would be greatly assisted by the extension of such Conventions. It would be desirable that the measures laid down therein should be fully applied, and that they should be amended and their scope widened, particularly by the granting of free postage and by the extension of these measures to include all publications, even unofficial ones.

IV.

SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

The Committee is of opinion that co-operation in scientific research represents, in the whole field of international intellectual co-operation, the best means of bringing men together by inducing them to devote their energies to the common task of securing peace and advancing civilisation. It is desirous that this co-operation should be developed, but it lays down the principle that such co-operation ought to be the special concern of the scientific societies

themselves. The Committee, therefore, while anxious not to interfere either in the organisation or the work of these societies, declares that it is ready to afford them all the practical assistance within its power. Accordingly, it will retain the problem of scientific relations on the agenda of its next session.

With a view to facilitating scientific research, the Committee is of opinion that some scheme of international loan and credit fund might be considered.

V.

INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING FOR THE DISCOVERY OF ARCHÆOLOGICAL MONUMENTS AND THE PUBLICATION OF THE RESULTS.

In spite of the zeal displayed by many nations in discovering and preserving memorials of antiquity, numerous documents of the highest value are still buried or otherwise inaccessible to scholars or in danger of disappearing or of being destroyed. International co-operation in such matters is therefore both necessary and justifiable. It is, indeed, already taking place between certain nations, but no international regulations have yet been framed with a view to a fair distribution of this work and of the charges and advantages which accrue from it. An international understanding might therefore be considered for the purpose of :

- (1) drawing up a list of such archæological treasures as have not yet been brought to light ;
- (2) preparing a general plan of research ;
- (3) determining regulations as to the method of carrying out researches ;
- (4) establishing international regulations concerning the preservation and legal transfer of archæological monuments.

VI.

INTER-UNIVERSITY CO-OPERATION.

(1) As soon as conditions allow of the meeting of an International Congress of all the Universities of all countries, both State-controlled or independent, the Committee considers it desirable that such a Congress should be summoned in order to receive the views of those concerned on the possibilities of intellectual co-operation.

(2) The Committee entrusts to a Sub-Committee, consisting of M. de Castro, M. Destrée, M. Millikan, M. Murray and M. de Reynold, the duty of preparing for such a Congress in accordance with the provisions given below.

The Chairman of this Sub-Committee shall be M. Bergson, who shall convene the Sub-Committee at such time and place as he may think fit.

The Sub-Committee shall decide, in particular, the rules of procedure of the Congress eventually to be held, its agenda, and the general principles of its organisation.

(3) Inter-University co-operation may be considered from many aspects.

The Sub-Committee will first consider, with a view to future realisation, the following points : exchange of professors, exchange of students, equivalent recognition of academic studies and degrees, establishment of international scholarships, of international vacation courses and of a Central University Information Bureau. The consideration of these points shall not, however, infringe the sovereign right of nations to make their own educational legislation nor the autonomy of Universities.

(4) All Universities shall be informed of this resolution. They shall be invited to send to the Secretariat of the League of Nations, for communication to the Sub-Committee, their views on the points mentioned in paragraph 3. They are advised only to make such communication after consultation with the other Universities of their country or of a group of countries.

VII.

PROTECTION OF INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY.

The Committee, considering that intellectual property is not sufficiently protected, and that scientific property, particularly, is at present not protected at all, entrusts a Sub-Committee, consisting of M. Destrée, M. Millikan, M. Ruffini and M. Torres-Quevedo, with the duty of examining the means by which this protection might be assured.

This Sub-Committee shall get into touch with such organisations as it may consider competent to provide it with useful information, and, in the first instance, with the "Bureau international de la Propriété littéraire et artistique" at Berne, and also with the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry and with the "Confédération française des Travailleurs intellectuels."

VIII.

POISONOUS GASES AND CHEMICAL WARFARE.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation regrets its inability to suggest methods by which scientific men throughout the world can be induced to publish their discoveries concerning poisonous gases and the development of chemical warfare.

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1922²

Geneva,

October 11th, 1922.

League of Nations

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

MINUTES

OF THE

FIRST SESSION

GENEVA, AUGUST 1st-5th, 1922

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

M. D. N. BANNERJEA,	Professor of Political Economy at the University of Calcutta.
M. H. BERGSON,	Hon. Professor of Philosophy at the College de France; Member of the French Academy and of the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences.
Mlle. BONNEVIE,	Professor of Zoology at the University of Christiania; Delegate of Norway to the Assembly of the League of Nations.
M. A. de CASTRO,	Professor of Medicine and Director of the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Rio de Janeiro.
Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA,	Professor of Physics at the University of Paris and Hon. Professor of the University of Warsaw; Member of the Academy of Medicine at Paris, of the Polish Academy at Cracow, and of the Scientific Society at Warsaw.
M. J. DESTRÉE,	Former Belgian Minister of Sciences and Arts; Member of the Belgian Academy of French Language and Literature.
M. A. EINSTEIN,	Professor of Physics at the Universities of Berlin and Leyden; Member of the Academy of Science, Berlin, of the Royal Society, London, and of the Royal Academy, Amsterdam.
Mr. G. E. HALE,	Director of the Mount Wilson Observatory; Foreign Member of the Royal Society, London; Foreign Associate of the Institut de France; Member of the Executive Committee of the International Research Council; Hon. President of the National Research Council of the United States.
Mr. G. A. MURRAY,	Professor of Greek Philology at Oxford University; Member of the Council of the British Academy, and Delegate of South Africa to the Assembly of the League of Nations.
M. G. de REYNOLD,	Professor of French Literature at the University of Berne.
M. F. RUFFINI,	Professor of Ecclesiastical Law at the University of Turin; former Minister of Public Education; President of the Union of Associations for the League of Nations; President of the Royal Academy at Turin.
M. L. de TORRES QUEVEDO,	Director of the Laboratorio electro-mechanico at Madrid; Member of the Real Academia de Ciencias; Member of the Junta para Ampliación de Estudios; Inspector-General of Roads and Bridges.

Substitute for Mr. Hale:

Mr. R. A. MILLIKAN,	Director of the Norman Bridge Laboratory of Physics at the California Institute of Technology; Vice-President of the National Research Council of the United States; Exchange Professor in Belgium.
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Also present:

M. I. NITOBE,	Under Secretary-General of the League of Nations; Professor at Tokio University (working in collaboration with the Committee).
M. J. LUCHAIRE,	Inspector-General of Public Education in France.
M. W. MARTIN,	Technical Adviser of the International Labour Office.

Secretary:

M. O. de HALECKI,	Professor of History at the University of Warsaw; Member of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.
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Recording Secretary:

M. A. TOLÉDANO,	Member of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.
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COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

MINUTES OF THE FIRST SESSION.

FIRST MEETING

Held on Tuesday, August 1st, 1922, at 10 a.m.

In the Chair: Dr. NITOBÉ, succeeded by Professor BERGSON.

Present : All the members of the Committee except Professor Einstein.

1. Opening Speech of Dr. Nitobé.

Dr. NITOBÉ, on behalf of the Council, welcomed the members of the Committee and thanked them for having consented to take part in the important work of intellectual co-operation. He recalled the manner in which the Council, which in this matter had hitherto confined itself to giving official support to the Union of International Associations at Brussels, had been led, on the invitation of the Assembly, to appoint the present Committee.

The members of the Committee were all personalities eminent in the various branches of human knowledge, and their relations with their respective Governments, which they in no way represented, were those of complete independence.

The work of the Committee, the scope of which had not been strictly defined, either by the Council or by the Assembly, was to submit to the Assembly a report on the steps to be taken by the League to facilitate intellectual relations between peoples, particularly in respect of the communication of scientific information.

In conclusion, Dr. Nitobé invited the Committee to elect a Chairman.

2. Speech of Professor de Reynold.

Professor de REYNOLD wished, as a native of Switzerland, to convey to the Committee, in a purely personal fashion, a welcome from his country.

He recalled the fact that the first meeting of the Committee was being held on the day of the Swiss national fête. He saw in this a happy coincidence and a proof that it was possible to reach a synthesis between the national and the international spirit.

Such a synthesis had, in fact, been accomplished in Switzerland. The Swiss people, with no unity of language or race, and with a system of public education which varied in each canton, nevertheless constituted an energetic living nation, and particularly in the intellectual sphere.

3. Election of Chairman.

Professor MURRAY stated that a chairman must possess certain essential qualities. He must have had practice in presiding over an international conference. He must know more than one language, and, lastly, he must be chosen by the members of the conference. While he felt sure that many members of the Committee fulfilled the above conditions, he was convinced that few fulfilled them in such a high degree as Professor Bergson. He therefore proposed that the Committee should elect Professor Bergson as Chairman.

Professor RUFFINI seconded Professor Murray's proposal.

Professor Bergson was unanimously and by acclamation elected Chairman.

The CHAIRMAN thanked the Committee for the honour which it had done him in inviting him to preside over its work, the object of which was to render such signal services to science and to humanity at large and to fulfil the great hopes entertained of the Committee by the League of Nations.

On behalf of his colleagues, he wished to extend a greeting to Switzerland and to the City of Geneva, which were to-day celebrating their national fête.

He also wished to thank Dr. Nitobé and Professor de Halecki for the careful and devoted spirit in which they had undertaken the preparatory work of the Committee.

4. Election of Vice-Chairman.

Dr. HALE proposed as Vice-Chairman, Professor Murray, who, in addition to his scientific qualifications, had, as a delegate to the Assembly of the League, interested himself most keenly in the question of intellectual co-operation.

Professor Murray was unanimously elected Vice-Chairman.

5. Draft Rules of Procedure.

The CHAIRMAN thought it unnecessary to draw up any very elaborate rules of procedure. There were certain questions, however, which could be settled at once, notably the question of the publicity of meetings.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA considered that the best method would be to leave to the Chairman the task of making statements to the Press on the work of the Committee. No special communiqué should be sent to the papers.

Professor RUFFINI supported Mme. Curie-Skłodowska's proposal.

The proposal was unanimously adopted.

The Committee then proceeded to examine the draft rules of procedure, article by article.

Article 1.

No observations. *Adopted.*

Article 2.

The CHAIRMAN considered that, if the Committee adopted Article 2 as it stood, it would prejudge at the outset the very important question of its permanence as a Committee. It would perhaps be better to defer until later the solution of this question.

Dr. NITOBE explained that Article 2 had been drafted in its present form, because it had not seemed possible for the Committee to deal in a single session with all the questions submitted to it.

Professor MURRAY agreed, and observed also that, in view of the proximity of the date of the Third Assembly, it was improbable that the Committee would be able to hold another meeting before the Assembly.

The CHAIRMAN thought that Article 2 might be allowed to stand provisionally. On the other hand, he was of opinion that the Committee should meet periodically. If it was understood that the object of the article in question was only to carry out important decisions, he was ready to accept it.

Professor de REYNOLD proposed that such discussion of this question as might be necessary should be postponed to the end of the session.

This was agreed.

Article 3.

No observations. *Adopted.*

Alternative Article 3.

Mlle. BONNEVIE proposed that the first and third paragraphs should be suppressed and that the second paragraph should be joined to Article 2 previously adopted.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA supported this proposal.

The CHAIRMAN observed that alternative Article 3 had only been drawn up in case the original Article 3 was not adopted.

Paragraph 2 of alternative Article 3 was added to Article 2, and paragraphs 1 and 3 of alternative Article 3 were suppressed.

Articles 4, 5 and 6 were adopted without observation.

Article 7.

M. DESTRÉE proposed that the words "by vote and without discussion" should be suppressed.

This was agreed.

Article 8.

M. DESTRÉE wished to reserve for the minority the right of submitting, in case a unanimous vote was not obtained, a note attached to the report or to the resolution which contained the opinion of the majority, setting forth the reasons which had induced the minority to oppose the majority.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO supported M. Destree's proposal and urged that this right should be accorded to the minority since many various opinions might be held.

M. Destree's proposal was unanimously adopted.

M. Destree was entrusted with the task of drafting a new paragraph embodying his proposal.

Article 9.

Professor de REYNOLD enquired if sub-committees must be composed exclusively of members of the Committee.

The CHAIRMAN thought that, in view of the very special questions which the sub-committees would probably have to discuss, they should be authorised to co-opt experts.

M. DESTRÉE thought that the existing text gave the Committee full liberty in this respect. It would be well, however, to provide that the sub-committees should be presided over by a member of the Committee, so as to maintain liaison between the Committee and the sub-committees.

This was agreed.

Articles 10 and 11 were adopted without observation.

M. DESTRÉE proposed to limit the time allowed for individual speeches.

After discussion, it was agreed, in principle, that the time-limit should be a quarter of an hour.

With these modifications, the Committee adopted the Draft Rules of Procedure (Annex I).

6. Duration and Order of the Committee's Work.

The CHAIRMAN wondered whether it would not be well to limit at the outset the number of questions on the agenda and the duration of the Committee's work.

M. DESTRÉE thought that if the Committee held two meetings a day and a public meeting on Sunday, August 6th, it would be able to finish its work in the middle of the following week.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO, while agreeing with M. Destrée, was anxious that the Committee should not bind itself as to the actual date of the termination of its discussions. Several members had come from distant countries, and it would be advantageous to profit by their presence to conclude, as soon as possible, the consideration of the questions on the agenda.

Professor de REYNOLD considered that, in order to estimate the probable length of the session, it would be desirable to determine precisely the agenda.

Mlle. BONNEVIE urged that the Committee should not meet again until the following morning, in order that it might have time to study the documents distributed. The discussion of the agenda might be preceded by a general debate.

Professor RUFFINI supported Mlle. Bonnevie's proposal.

The CHAIRMAN observed that the question of the length of the session was closely bound up with that of the Committee's method of work. If it was a question of discussing matters *au fond* and of finding solutions, the Committee could only consider two or three points. If, on the other hand, the Committee was only to decide upon the questions to be considered at the current session or at future sessions, or to adjourn *sine die*, its work would be much sooner accomplished.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA considered that the Committee could not discuss *au fond*, during the current session, all the questions before it. The object of the present meeting was to establish a method of work. On the other hand, in view of the fact that certain members of the Committee had come from distant countries, they should have the right of giving their opinions on all the questions before the Committee.

Professor MURRAY considered that the Committee should take an immediate decision on certain questions, for example, on the question of the convocation of a Universities Conference. On the other hand, other questions would require detailed examination and would probably have to be referred to sub-committees.

After discussion, *it was agreed* that the Committee should hold a second meeting the same day at 5 p.m., and that it should determine its agenda, examining what were the questions to which it thought itself able to propose at once a definite solution, and what were those for the solution of which it would confine itself to laying down general lines of action.

7. Communications by the Secretary.

The SECRETARY brought to the knowledge of the Committee several communications, notably:

(I) A telegram from Professor Einstein, who, while assuring the Committee of his co-operation, excused himself for not being able to attend the present session, in view of the fact that he had to complete an important scientific work;

(2) A letter from the Secretary-General of the Advisory Committee on Communications and Transit concerning the question of the reform of the calendar which the Advisory Committee had begun to study;

(3) Various communications from private individuals and institutions, notably a memorandum from the Hungarian League of Nations Union on the subject of intellectual co-operation, and a scheme for the creation of an international school of diplomacy, transmitted by Mr. W. B. Stephens of New York.

He finally informed the Committee that the President had requested that a seventh question be added to the agenda, namely, the question of the continuation of the Committee's work.

Dr. NITOBE stated that he had just received a letter from Professor Einstein stating that, in view of his approaching departure for Japan, he was not able to take part in the work of the Committee, but that in six months' time he hoped to be able to do so.

SECOND MEETING

Held on Tuesday, August 1st, 1922, at 5 p.m.

In the Chair: Professor BERGSON.

Present: All the members present at the previous meeting.

8. Appointment of Rapporteur.

The CHAIRMAN proposed that, before passing to a discussion of the agenda, the Committee should appoint a Rapporteur, so that he might at once begin to assemble the materials necessary for his work.

Professor RUFFINI proposed the appointment of Professor de Reynold.

This proposal was unanimously adopted.

9. Discussion of the Agenda.

The CHAIRMAN explained that the proposals on the agenda fell into two classes: those which came from persons outside the Committee, and those which originated within the Committee itself.

He proposed that the Committee should briefly decide which questions on the agenda should be retained. The Committee might then discuss the various questions in detail.

Professor RUFFINI observed that the proposals before the Committee might be divided into two groups. There were proposals relating to institutions already in existence and proposals relating to institutions which had yet to be set up.

The Committee must not confine itself to a co-ordination of institutions already in existence, but must create something new. It might, for example, accept the proposal of M. Destrée for the creation of a large centre of international culture. It might further take account of the results of the work of the International University at Brussels.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO proposed that the Committee should secure the collaboration of the universities, academies, and learned societies, and should obtain their advice through the Secretariat on the questions on the agenda which remained outstanding at the end of each session of the Committee. The replies to these questions might be submitted to the Committee for discussion.

The CHAIRMAN thought that the proposal of M. de Torres Quevedo was most important, but that it would be advisable to discuss it in connection with the question of the continuity of the work of the Committee.

M. de CASTRO thought that the Committee should at once take up the preliminary question of the continuity of its work. He wondered, however, whether the Committee had the right to do so, since the Council had not mentioned the point.

The CHAIRMAN observed that the Committee was always free to submit a proposal to the Council on this subject. He thought, however, that the Committee could not take up the question until it had assembled its conclusions regarding the different problems which had been submitted.

M. de CASTRO agreed with this view.

The SECRETARY gave the Committee a summary of the report of the Secretariat on the proposals submitted to the Committee by various organisations and individuals (Annex III).

Most of these proposals might be distributed among the various items on the agenda. Only a small number would require from the Committee a definite reply, either in the affirmative or in the negative. It would be sufficient, therefore, to draw the attention of the Committee to one or two documents of importance.

In group A of the provisional agenda, item 5 corresponded with No. 7 of the report; Nos. 9, 40, 17 and 18 of the same document corresponded with item 6 on the agenda. Nos. 40, 41 to 44, and No. 5 (last paragraph) were connected with the question of bibliography.

Coming to group B of the agenda, Nos. 44, 45, 46 and 47 of the report corresponded with item 2 (a) of the agenda, and Nos. 1, 2 and 3 to item 6; the 5th, and perhaps the 4th, proposal corresponded with item 7.

The CHAIRMAN asked whether any member wished to make any additions to the proposals on the agenda. Personally, he wished to submit a proposal concerning items 3 and 4, and particularly concerning group B. The intention of his proposal was to put the Committee into relation with the scientific associations of the various countries and with the federations of intellectual workers. He gave as an instance the Confederation of Intellectual Workers which had been set up in France, and which had already carefully studied questions relating to the material position of intellectual workers and to literary, artistic and scientific property. It would be well to secure the assistance of this organisation.

M. DESTRÉE and Mlle. BONNEVIE asked whether, in the course of the discussion, each member might formulate new proposals arising out of the debate.

The CHAIRMAN replied in the affirmative.

The agenda was adopted (Annex II).

10. Question of an International Language.

M. de TORRES QUEDEVO proposed that the Committee should begin with the question of an international language, in order that it might consult the Vice-President of the International Esperanto Association, who would be obliged to leave Geneva very shortly.

Professor de REYNOLD thought that the Committee should put this question aside, as it had been submitted to the Assembly of the League, and as it was not so urgent as the other questions.

He further proposed that the Committee should deal principally with the international organisation of scientific reports, with the mutual study of reports by the universities, and with the international organisation of bibliography. He thought that the study of these three questions should be preceded by an enquiry into the conditions of intellectual life in the various countries where the question was particularly urgent.

Professor MURRAY, while agreeing with the observations of Professor de Reynold, thought that the Committee should, nevertheless, decide whether it was opportune to recommend the adoption of a universal language.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO urged that the question of Esperanto should, for practical reasons, be taken up immediately.

Professor BANNERJEA supported the proposal of M. de Torres Quevedo.

The CHAIRMAN observed that the Committee would be going beyond its competence in taking up the question of Esperanto. A report on the subject had been submitted to the Council, which had not yet been able to deal with it. He thought it would be sufficient if this report were distributed to the members of the Committee.

This proposal was adopted.

11. Enquiry into Conditions of Intellectual Life in the various Countries.

M. DESTRÉE suggested that the Committee should first recommend that the League of Nations should initiate a general enquiry into conditions of intellectual life in the various countries, and should afterwards consider measures for bringing immediate assistance to the nations where intellectual life was threatened with imminent disaster, or where it was impoverished and impeded by the poor character of the education given to the mass of the population.

Professor de REYNOLD asked that these two questions should be separated, as the second of them infringed the sovereignty of the countries concerned.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA agreed with Professor de Reynold.

Professor MURRAY also supported the proposal for the separation of the two questions, and proposed that the question of salaries and wages should be joined to that of the enquiry on intellectual life.

Professor BANNERJEA did not think that a discussion of this nature need prejudice the sovereignty of States. All the members of the Committee were convinced that the insufficiency of educational facilities for the great masses of the population had a most profound effect upon the intellectual life of a country. The consideration of point 2(b) might, therefore, proceed side by side with that of point 2(a).

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA observed that an expression of opinion by the Committee in this matter would not yield any practical results.

Professor RUFFINI proposed that point 2(b) should be forthwith discussed. The Committee would conciliate public opinion if it examined the methods of bringing immediate help to nations where intellectual life was threatened with imminent disaster.

Professor BANNERJEA urged that the Committee, while not interfering in the political affairs of any country, should express an opinion in the sense which he had indicated. Such an expression of opinion would have the most salutary effect in all countries, and could not fail to enhance the prestige of the League.

The CHAIRMAN pointed out that it was not within the competence of the Committee to consider educational questions.

On the other hand, it would appear that the Committee was unanimously in favour of joining the question of the enquiry on the intellectual condition of various countries to the enquiry on the salaries and wages of intellectual workers. On this subject, an appeal could be made to the Confederation of Intellectual Workers, which had collected documents bearing on the situation in France.

Professor BANNERJEA maintained his point of view on the advisability of a pronouncement on mass-education, but agreed that it could be made on another occasion.

Professor MURRAY considered that, since Austria was the country most directly threatened, from this point of view, with imminent disaster, it was desirable that the Committee should be able, if not to co-opt an Austrian member, at least to hear an Austrian expert on the subject.

M. de CASTRO thought it desirable to specify what were the nations whose intellectual life was threatened with disaster, and what were the operative causes of such disaster. It would then be possible to examine the question of remedies for the evil.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA supported Professor Murray's proposal, and asked if it would not be possible to summon urgently an Austrian representative.

Professor de REYNOLD gave details of the difficulty experienced by certain countries which had been established on the ruins of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and of the Russian Empire, in obtaining the necessary equipment for work, and on the lamentable situation of the Austrian professors, as well as of the University and scientific associations of Vienna. He also thought that the Committee should summon urgently an Austrian expert, and he proposed Professor Dopsch, of the University of Vienna, whose name had already been canvassed as a member of the Committee. As regards the enquiry, the League of Nations might send a mission to work on the spot.

Finally, the Committee might issue an appeal to the universities and learned societies of the whole world, requesting them to arrange for the exchange of professors or publications with countries where the intellectual situation was in danger.

Professor RUFFINI supported Professor de Reynold's proposal concerning Austria. The latest information which he had received on the subject fully confirmed the serious nature of the situation outlined by the previous speaker. Austria had once taken a most important place in the sphere of scientific and literary culture. An appeal on her behalf would meet everywhere, and particularly in Italy, with the most favourable reception.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA was anxious that the appeal should contain concrete proposals so that it might be more efficacious. She thought that the Committee might well co-opt as an expert, Professor Stephan Meyer, of Vienna.

Dr. W. MARTIN stated that the International Labour Office was in possession of very complete information on the situation in Austria, and Central and Eastern Europe in general. This information was entirely at the disposal of the Committee.

Austria was one of the countries where intellectual life was most completely organised. The "Zentralrat der geistigen Arbeiter" numbered 400,000 members out of a total of 6 million inhabitants. This association would gladly furnish all the information which the Committee might desire.

The question was not so much one of information as of decision. The situation was sufficiently well known for there to be no doubt on the action to be taken.

Dr. HALE thought that the questions for immediate consideration were the questions which might have a practical result. It was necessary to know as soon as possible what were the sums indispensable to the minimum subsistence of intellectual workers. It would also be necessary to know what measure of assistance was indispensable for the various associations, scientific bodies, etc., in order to enable them to continue the publication of the results of their labours.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA suggested, as one of the concrete proposals which might be made, that certain universities should be asked to devote temporarily a fixed proportion of their scholarships for the benefit of professors and students of Central and Eastern Europe.

Mlle. BONNEVIE thought that the Committee might obtain supplementary information from M. Hoffmann, Executive Secretary of the European Student Relief, who had had considerable experience of the question, and who was at the moment in Geneva.

Professor BANNERJEA suggested that, if an appeal were made to the various nations, India should not be forgotten. India was not very rich, but she would do everything possible to help intellectual workers in distress.

On the proposal of the Chairman, Professor de Reynold and Mme. Curie-Sklodowska were entrusted with the drafting of a preliminary memorandum on the methods of affording immediate assistance to nations the intellectual life of which was threatened with imminent disaster.

THIRD MEETING

Held on Wednesday, August 2nd, 1922, at 10 a.m.

In the Chair: Professor BERGSON.

Present: All the members present at the previous meeting.

12. Admission of Strangers to Meetings of the Committee.

The Committee authorised its Chairman to admit to meetings of the Committee, as an exceptional measure, persons who wished to follow the work of the Committee, on condition that no information as to the proceedings was given to the Press.

13. Draft Resolutions submitted by Mme. Curie-Skłodowska and Professor de Reynold on the Enquiry into the Conditions of Intellectual Life in the various Countries.

Professor de REYNOLD submitted the draft resolution which he had drawn up in consultation with Mme. Curie-Skłodowska.

"(1) The Committee requests the Council of the League of Nations to institute an enquiry into the conditions of intellectual work in various countries, the evils from which intellectual life is suffering, and the remedies suggested. This enquiry would deal more particularly with the economic position of intellectual workers.

"(2) The Committee expressly calls the attention of the Council of the League of Nations to the desperate situation of intellectual life in certain European countries and the urgent need of intervention.

"The Committee is prepared to supply the Council or the Assembly with all detailed information in this connection and to act as its intermediary in all measures which it might be able to adopt."

Professor de Reynold said that this draft resolution would be accompanied by an explanatory note concerning point 2 above, giving details concerning the position in countries most affected, and would contain an appeal in favour of Austria, addressed to the learned associations of all countries.

The CHAIRMAN observed that the note might also contain an appeal in favour of other countries such as Poland.

Professor de REYNOLD replied that the Secretary had submitted a draft which would be annexed to the above text. The draft was as follows:—

"In order to be in a position to supply the Assembly of the League of Nations with the detailed information mentioned in paragraph (2), the Committee decides:

"(a) To request Professor de Reynold to prepare, at the earliest possible moment, a statement, with documentary evidence, on the condition of intellectual life in Austria, making use of the abundant information which he has collected on this subject and entering into direct relations with the most competent authorities in that country;

"(b) To request Mme. Curie-Skłodowska to undertake a similar task with regard to Poland;

"(c) To submit to the Assembly of the League of Nations these two statements as models, which might be used as a basis for preparing a plan of action on behalf of certain other countries where the requirements of intellectual labour are practically the same."

The Committee agreed to adopt this suggestion and to forward the two draft resolutions to the Council of the League of Nations.

Professor de Reynold was asked to study the position in Austria, and Mme. Curie-Skłodowska to study the position in Poland.

Dr. HALE wondered whether it would not be well to extend the enquiry to Russia, where the situation of the intellectuals was at least as precarious as in Austria.

The CHAIRMAN observed that the first part of the first resolution provided for an enquiry in various countries, among which Russia was included. He thought it would be difficult to do anything immediately practical in the case of Russia.

Dr. HALE replied that certain facts in regard to the needs of intellectual workers in Russia were already well known, and that steps had already been taken in America to come to their assistance. The Committee might therefore be able to do something in this direction.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA thought that there would be no difficulty in sending scientific publications to Russian professors.

It was agreed that a note on this question should be attached to the report of Professor de Reynold and Mme. Curie-Skłodowska.

Professor de REYNOLD expressed a wish that the enquiry should be conducted in such a way that replies could be obtained, at the same time, on a division according to countries and on a division according to scientific activities.

As regards the second sentence of the first proposal, it would be desirable to ask the International Labour Office to institute an enquiry, not only on the subject of salaries and wages, but also on the general conditions of the life and work of intellectual workers, the exact meaning of the latter phrase being explained and defined. It might be possible, *e.g.*, to restrict the enquiry to artists and to university professors.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA wished the word "savant" to be added to the words "university professors".

Dr. W. MARTIN observed that the Committee had not been explicitly entrusted by the Council with the task of considering the question of intellectual workers, because the Council had not thought it possible to refer to the Committee a question which was not directly within its competence. The Council had, however, left the Committee entirely free to determine its own agenda. Moreover, the International Labour Conference had referred to the International Labour Office the question of intellectual workers. In view of the fact that it had already been decided to appoint the present Committee, the International Labour Office had refrained from appointing a committee to examine the question.

As regards the enquiry, a large number of requests had already been put forward on the subject by various organisations of intellectual workers. It would seem that this enquiry ought not be confined to salaries and wages ; it would be desirable to consider as a whole the material situation of the workers. On the other hand, it was difficult to define exactly what professions were intellectual professions. In view, however, of the limited time at the disposal of the Committee between the present session and its next session, Professor de Reynold's proposal to select certain classes of intellectual workers appeared to be the most practical. The class of university professors was one of the classes indicated by Professor de Reynold, in the case of which it would be easy to take preliminary "soundings". But this would be less easy in the case of "savants" in general.

It might be possible to add to the categories already enumerated that of technical experts, on the subject of whom the International Labour Office had already begun an enquiry.

The CHAIRMAN thanked Dr. Martin for his statement and asked him to convey the thanks of the Committee to the International Labour Office for the help which it had offered.

He wondered whether it was desirable that the Committee should intimate to the Council the method by which it had limited the proposed enquiry.

M. DESTRÉE, while admitting that the enquiry should be of a general character, thought that the Committee should nevertheless inform the Council that it would be preferable to conduct the enquiry, in the first instance, solely in respect of university professors and in respect of one class of artists. He therefore supported Professor de Reynold's proposal, the effect of which was to inform the Council of those classes of intellectual workers an enquiry into whose circumstances would yield the best results, and to reassure the Council as to the general scope of the work which the Committee had to accomplish.

Professor de REYNOLD proposed that an explanatory note should be added to the first part of the resolution, as had been done in the case of the second part.

The CHAIRMAN thought it sufficient to attach to the report, the minutes of the discussion.

14. Bibliography.

M. DESTRÉE was afraid that the discussion of this wide and somewhat delicate question might lead to a prolonged discussion. He therefore proposed that the Committee should proceed to a general exchange of views on the subject, and should then entrust a sub-committee with the task of drawing up a proposal on the lines of the general discussion.

The work of compiling a universal bibliography had been undertaken before the war, notably by the International Bibliographical Institute at Brussels. The Institute was now almost at the end of its resources. It would be desirable, before creating any new body, to make use of an existing organisation, *i.e.*, to allow the Brussels Institute to pursue its activities.

Moreover, in order to keep savants in touch with the development of human knowledge, it would perhaps be desirable to encourage the publication of a summary bulletin containing an analysis of all reviews published.

It would also be desirable to encourage the exchange of books and periodicals. The Organisation des Echanges internationaux, which was located at Brussels, was specially concerned with this work, but the countries which took part in the organisation had hitherto confined themselves to the exchange of official documents. It would be desirable to extend these exchanges to non-official documents and to allow such documents to be sent by post free of charge.

Professor de REYNOLD proposed that the Committee should endeavour to co-ordinate the activities of institutions actually in existence, and to save institutions which were threatened, those, at least which could be saved.

There were three large existing bibliographical institutions: the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels; the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature in London, and the Concilium Bibliographicum at Zurich. These three institutions were threatened with extinction, and particularly the first of them.

Professor RUFFINI thought that the two proposals of Professor de Reynold and M. Destrée might be combined. The questions of exchanges and loans of books were equally interesting. During the war, all exchanges had been suspended, and it was desirable that they should be resumed. The Italian Ministry of Education has established a complete system of international loans. This idea might well be applied.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA drew attention to the importance of having an international organisation for the preparation of abstracts. Such a service already existed and it might be unified and completed. Intellectual workers would thus be relieved of very arduous labour. Another useful form of documentation consisted of general reports drawn up from time to time on certain scientific questions by qualified scientists. There were actually such reports appearing in the scientific reviews, but an independent general organisation might be more useful, and an effort of this kind had recently been made at Paris, where a system of "conférences-rapports" forming a connected series had been started.

To sum up, provision should be made for:

- (1) A unified international system of abstracts.
- (2) A system of "conférences-rapports".
- (3) An organisation, in as practical a form as possible, for the exchange of reviews and of extracts from reviews.

The Committee could then proceed to a systematic enquiry with a view to making definite proposals. The work might be carried out by certain members of the Committee.

Dr. HALE thought it would be necessary, before adopting the proposal of Professor de Reynold, to obtain information on the usefulness of existing institutions. Opinions were not unanimous on this subject. As regards the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature in London, for example, views were divided in the United States. On the other hand, the institute at Zurich enjoyed a considerable reputation; it had been subsidised by the Rockefeller Foundation.

The question of abstracts had already been studied by the Unions of Chemistry and Physics of the International Research Council, which were now considering a standard type of summary which they would propose for adoption by the European reviews. As, however, the spheres of human activity were varied, it would be advisable to ask specialists to study this question in detail.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA supported the proposal of Dr. Hale to entrust the enquiry to specialists. The Committee should draw attention to the desirability of undertaking the study of this question, and of inviting the International Research Council to make the service of abstracts international. It might even collaborate in this field with the Research Council.

Mlle. BONNEVIE pointed out that the Zurich Institute had rendered considerable services. As regards abstracts, she drew the attention of the Committee to the methods employed by a series of American periodicals dealing with biology. The author of every manuscript handed in also a short abstract, which appeared in the library catalogue. This abstract might be sent before the book was printed. This was an extremely useful work, which might certainly be generalised.

Professor de REYNOLD thought that the Committee should base its study of the question on a report by experts. Such a report was at its disposal, drafted by the President of the Swiss Society of Librarians in collaboration with the Secretary of the Society and the Director of the Swiss National Library. This report contained observations, and even criticisms, on the three bibliographical institutions already mentioned. It also contained practical suggestions. He proposed to communicate this report to the Committee for its information.

Dr. MILLIKAN thought that, on the question of abstracts, the Committee should resort to experts in order to avoid overlapping. As regards chemistry, the International Union of Chemistry was considering the question, and as regards physics, the International Union of Physics. A similar organisation existed for biology. All that the Committee could do, as Mme. Curie-

Skłodowska had suggested, was to recommend that these scientific organisations should co-ordinate their efforts. Direct co-operation between the Committee and the organisations in question might even be contemplated.

Professor MURRAY thought that the Committee should take no decision which might prejudice the question. The best course was, perhaps, to summon an international conference of specialists. In any case, he was of opinion that the Committee should merely recommend a closer international co-operation between the learned bodies of the various countries.

Professor BANNERJEA asked that India should be included in any arrangement which might be made. The number of universities had recently increased in India, and, according to the new programme, a greater number of books had been set in the examinations. At the International University of Dr. Tagore near Calcutta, it had been decided that use should be made of publications from the western countries.

In view of these changes, it might be expected that the number of works consulted would increase and that an internationalisation of the system of abstracts would facilitate intellectual life in India.

The CHAIRMAN thought that all these questions were connected with the more general question of the conclusion to be reached as a result of the discussion. This conclusion could only be attained after a special committee had studied the question. The Committee should, however, indicate the direction in which a solution should be sought.

Professor de REYNOLD proposed to submit a draft resolution on the subject at the next meeting.

FOURTH MEETING

Held on Wednesday, August 2nd, 1922, at 3.30 p.m.

In the Chair: Professor BERGSON.

Present: The members present at the previous meeting.

15. Bibliography. (*continued*).

Professor de REYNOLD read the following text of a draft resolution which he had drawn up in collaboration with Mme. Curie-Skłodowska:

"The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation considers that the greatest care should be taken to co-ordinate the efforts which are being made, both with a view to preserving and supplementing the documentation relating to the intellectual output of mankind and with a view to facilitating and expediting the process of documentation which is essential to the development of scientific knowledge at the present time.

"For this purpose, the Committee considers it indispensable to arrive at an international agreement on a uniform system of classification.

"As regards retrospective documentation, use should be made of organisations which have already been established for this purpose, subject to the above-mentioned condition that the system of classification should be uniform.

"As regards rapid documentation, which is of vital importance for the advancement of knowledge, the Committee is of opinion that this branch of documentation should be under the control of specialised technical organisations, such as the international unions which form integral parts of the International Research Council. The Committee therefore proposes to get into touch with the Research Council at once with a view to arriving at an agreement and securing co-operation. The connection between rapid bibliography and the bibliography of already existing works would be provided by a working agreement between the respective organisations responsible in each of these spheres.

"The Committee considers, in principle, that such an organisation of documentation of scientific works can only become operative if it is world-wide. It therefore declares itself prepared to act as an intermediary between the International Research Council and the other organisations which do not as yet belong to it.

"As regards the exchange and loan of works, it proposes that the League of Nations should summon a meeting of librarians to consider the question of information bureaux.

"As regards the exchange of publications, it proposes that the League of Nations should summon another international conference, the object of which would be to amend the Conventions of 1886."

The CHAIRMAN feared that the proposal made by Professor de Reynold and Mme. Curie-Skłodowska went somewhat beyond the discussion at the previous meeting. It referred, for example, to the question of classification, and to an international conference of librarians — questions which the Committee had not yet begun to discuss.

Dr. HALE thought that the question of classification should be left to the experts in each special branch of scientific knowledge. Librarians were not really competent on the scientific side of the matter.

Moreover, he wondered whether it would not be better if the Committee were merely to approve the work done by the International Research Council on the subject of abstracts and to avoid intervening in any way in the work.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA stated that she could not approve this work without knowing its scope and its results.

Dr. HALE replied that he had spoken only of a general approval of the efforts which were being made, under the auspices of the Research Council, to secure a uniform and satisfactory system of scientific abstracts.

Mlle. BONNEVIE asked for information as to the functions and activities of the International Research Council.

As regards scientific bibliography, she considered that there should be co-operation between scientists and librarians. It would therefore be desirable, if the Committee recommended the convocation of a conference on this subject, that the conference should include librarians as well as savants.

M. DESTRÉE explained that the International Research Council was a purely scientific body which had taken the place of the Association of Academies which existed before the war. It was a group of scientific associations in Allied and neutral countries, the best organised of which was the International Chemical Union.

He added that, since bibliography comprised all branches of knowledge and not only scientific knowledge, the International Research Council was not competent to examine the general question of bibliography.

On the other hand, the International Bibliographical Institute of Brussels, which worked in collaboration with the International Research Council, was specially qualified to study bibliographical questions.

He thought, with the Chairman, that the motion proposed by Professor de Reynold and Mme. Curie-Skłodowska went somewhat beyond the discussion at the previous meeting, and that the Committee should continue the discussion. He approved the happy distinction made in the motion between rapid bibliography and the bibliography of already existing works.

Special bibliographical questions which were not within the competence of the Committee might be referred for examination to the periodical International Bibliographical Congresses. It would be sufficient to indicate in a resolution the necessity of convening one of these congresses, which would be entrusted with the task of determining various questions of detail, notably that of classification. He, personally, preferred the American method of decimal classification, which had already been adopted by a great number of libraries.

If the Committee recommended the creation of a central bibliographical organisation, it should refer, in its recommendation, to the double task which would fall to this organisation, *viz.*: rapid bibliography and bibliography of existing works. Finally, he read the following draft recommendation:

"The Committee is of opinion that the basis of all intellectual co-operation should include, on the one hand, as complete a catalogue as possible of all branches of human knowledge, and, on the other hand, the adoption of a method of procedure by which all new branches of human knowledge may be as quickly as possible disseminated. This two-fold task should be entrusted to a special organisation concerned with the world-expansion of human knowledge. Pending the establishment of such an organisation, it would be desirable to assist in some effective manner the three existing organisations which most closely fulfil the objects aimed at, to co-ordinate their efforts and to establish between them an identical system of classification. As to the question of classification and the other methods under consideration with a view to obtaining as soon as possible, and in the most practical manner, the dissemination of knowledge, the Committee is of opinion that an International Bibliographical Congress should be invited to lay down the general lines of such a system. For the moment, the Committee merely draws attention to the fact that it would be of practical use to publish a bulletin in which the results of the most recent work could be briefly analysed.

"The Committee considers that it is urgently necessary to confirm and develop the Brussels Conventions of 1886, chiefly by extending them to all publications, even non-official ones, and by granting free postage.

"The Committee considers that human knowledge should be considered as the common property of all mankind and that in consequence it would be desirable to promote measures for placing at the disposal, either by means of loans or otherwise, of scientists engaged in research, the books and documents which such scientists may wish to consult, *e.g.*, by loans from library to library."

He thought, further, that it would be desirable to resuscitate in some degree the Bureau des Echanges internationaux, which derived its existence from the Brussels Convention of 1886. Great improvements could be made in this Convention, first, by extending the system of exchanges to non-official publications, and secondly by allowing it the benefit of free postage.

Professor MURRAY thought that the question should be referred to a congress composed of both scientists and librarians, and including the Germans and the Austrians as well as the Allies and the neutrals. This would be to act in the spirit of the League, and by this means a possibly dangerous multiplicity of systems would be avoided.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA was entirely in agreement on the last point, but considered that rapid bibliography was a scientific work which could only be undertaken by savants. In existing circumstances, abstracts were made by organisations which were directly dependent on scientific associations. Consequently, rapid bibliography should depend solely upon an international scientific organisation. It would be worth while to effect a separation between this method and bibliography in general.

M. DESTRÉE was anxious to remove any possible misunderstanding. He had not for an instant thought that bibliography, scientific or non-scientific, could be undertaken except by savants or by international scientific associations. The universal bibliographical association which the

Committee would have to create would have the function of publishing and disseminating such extracts as were forwarded to it by the scientific associations. This was what the Brussels Institute had already done.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA thought it necessary that the scientific associations should continue to control the work done.

Dr. HALE thought it indispensable to obtain collaboration between savants and librarians, the former to deal with the scientific aspects of the problem, the latter with the technical details of library organisation.

The International Research Council had been created to meet the needs of mathematics, physics and biology. At the moment it numbered 21 countries among its members, and this number was increasing year by year. The Council had established a group of international unions, dealing separately with mathematics, astronomy, geodesy and geophysics, chemistry, geography, geology (not yet completely organised), biology and scientific radio-telegraphy. A full report on the organisation and work of the International Research Council and its associated unions would be sent to each member of the Committee.

Professor de REYNOLD agreed with Dr. Hale. The questions of documentation and bibliography were extremely complicated because of their technical nature.

It would seem preferable to abandon the idea of attempting at once to organise a universal documentation. In this connection, it would be necessary to go very slowly, and to begin with the practical and rapid documentation of the sciences.

Further, the question of documentation depended to a large extent on the manner in which the Committee solved the problem of international scientific relations. He asked the Committee to proceed as soon as possible to discuss the question of the international organisation of scientific relations.

On the other hand, he was far from wishing to impose the decimal system, in which there were serious lacunæ. His object, and that of Mme. Curie-Skłodowska, had been to assure that it should always be possible, whatever was the system of classification adopted, to arrive at some possibility of agreement between the various systems.

It would perhaps be desirable to add to the resolution a sentence, intimating that the problem of documentation was closely bound up with the international organisation of scientific reports.

The CHAIRMAN agreed with Professor de Reynold that it would not be useful to pursue the discussion, since there had as yet not been an opportunity for the expression of all the various opinions, but he did not think it possible to subordinate the question of an exact and limited bibliography to the solution of the more general question of international scientific research. It would be regrettable if the Committee were to separate finally without arriving at a positive and final conclusion on the question of bibliography.

What emerged very clearly from the whole discussion was the necessity of consulting the professional specialists (bibliographers and librarians). It was no less clear that, for the present, the collaboration of scientists was still necessary. The following solution, therefore, suggested itself: that a Sub-Committee should be appointed, composed of those members of the Committee who had put forward the various views discussed during the meeting, to whom should be added such expert bibliographers and savants as might be considered desirable. The Committee should suggest to the Council the names of experts to be co-opted. The Sub-Committee would be given very considerable powers and would continue its work after the end of the current session of the Committee. There would be two great advantages in the appointment of the Sub-Committee. It would be able to sit in whatever place it judged most advantageous from the point of view of its documentation, and it would be able to deal, at the same time, with questions which had not been raised in the Committee, but which were nevertheless closely connected with the general question of bibliography.

Finally, the Sub-Committee would be able to examine the very interesting point raised by M. Luchaire concerning the creation of a universal library by establishing an international legal obligation to deposit, and to make proposals on this subject to the Committee. Such a library would need very large quarters. The keep of Vincennes, near Paris, would seem to be well suited for this purpose.

Professor RUFFINI observed that the legal obligation to deposit existed already in certain countries, and that it should be possible to internationalise it. Thus, reciprocity would be, *ipso facto*, established, since Italian publications, for example, would go into France, and *vice versa*.

He urged the importance of the question of loans, which would allow the intellectual workers of such countries as Austria to obtain all scientific publications.

M. DESTRÉE entirely agreed with the Chairman's proposal. He thought, however, that a resolution would lend force to the proposal. Of all the questions submitted to the Committee, the question of bibliography seemed certainly the most practical. If the Committee confined itself to referring the question to a Sub-Committee, it would seem to be avoiding a difficulty. It would be preferable to show, by a short resolution, that a modicum of agreement had been obtained on this important question. In this connection, he submitted the following draft resolution:

"The Committee, considering that human knowledge is the common heritage of mankind,

"Holds it desirable to draw up as complete an inventory of it as possible as regards the past, and, for the future, to effect as rapid a dissemination of it as possible;

"With a view to discovering the most practical means of obtaining this double result,

"The Committee entrusts to a Sub-Committee, composed of with the power of co-opting, in an advisory capacity, such and such an eminent specialist, the task of submitting to it a draft resolution on this subject."

The CHAIRMAN thought that, after the words "eminent specialist", it would be well to add the words "experts, savants and librarians".

M. DESTRÉE agreed. He proposed that he should draw up, in collaboration with Mme. Curie-Skłodowska and Professor de Reynold, a revised text to be considered at the next meeting.

This was agreed.

Mlle. BONNEVIE asked if the Committee was competent to appoint a Sub-Committee, which could sit between the sessions of the Committee and work in the independent manner suggested.

The CHAIRMAN replied that this was the reason why he had proposed that the composition of the Sub-Committee should be submitted for the approval of the Council.

Professor MURRAY wondered whether it was not for the Council itself to choose the members of the Sub-Committee.

The CHAIRMAN did not think so, since the Sub-Committee must remain an offshoot of the Committee.

Professor RUFFINI agreed with the Chairman. The Council of the League had given the Committee very wide terms of reference. It would, perhaps, be difficult for the Council itself to select the members of the Sub-Committee. It would also be well to avoid the possibility of some outside member, appointed by the Council, coming in with other ideas and disturbing the perfect harmony which had hitherto reigned in the Committee.

M. DESTRÉE begged the Chairman to preside over the Sub-Committee.

The CHAIRMAN agreed to do so, while declaring that he had no special competence in bibliographical questions.

It was agreed that the following should form the Sub-Committee: Professor BERGSON, Mlle. BONNEVIE, Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA, M. DESTRÉE, Dr. HALE (or Dr. MILLIKAN), M. LUCHAIRE, Professor MURRAY, Dr. NITOBE, Professor de REYNOLD.

The date of the first meeting of the Sub-Committee was fixed for October 1st approximately.

The CHAIRMAN thought it desirable to draw the attention of the Council to the fact that the Sub-Committee would be larger than most Sub-Committees, and that it would sit for a longer period. It would perhaps be necessary to consult the Assembly on the subject of the expenditure which a meeting of the Sub-Committee might entail.

M. DESTRÉE thought that the question of exchanges should not be referred to the Sub-Committee. He promised to submit a definite resolution on this subject at the next meeting.

Professor de REYNOLD proposed, as an expert on the Sub-Committee, M. Marcel GODET, Director of the Swiss National Library.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO asked that he might be given time to obtain information in Spain and in Latin America concerning the experts best qualified to assist the Sub-Committee.

The CHAIRMAN replied that, once the Sub-Committee was appointed, it would be free to co-opt one or two members, provided this was done before the next meeting of the Assembly.

Professor RUFFINI proposed, as expert, M. Fortunato PINTOR, Librarian of the Italian Senate.

M. DESTRÉE proposed M. SWARTS, Professor of Chemistry at the University of Ghent, and a most active member of the International Research Council.

Professor MURRAY thought it preferable, for the time being, to refrain from making any definitive choice.

The CHAIRMAN proposed that the names of all the persons mentioned at the previous meeting should be provisionally maintained on the list. The Committee would draw up the final list. It might also add two members before the date of the Assembly, in view of M. de Torres Quevedo's inability to give immediately any definitive information as regards Spain and Latin America.

This was agreed.

It was further agreed that the Sub-Committee should have at its disposal the minutes of all the discussions which had given rise to its appointment, as well as all the proposals which had been formulated during those discussions.

FIFTH MEETING

Held on Thursday, August 3rd, 1922, at 10.30 a.m.

In the Chair: Professor BERGSON.

Present: All the members present at the previous meeting.

16. Substitute for Mme. Curie-Skłodowska on the Sub-Committee on Bibliography.

The CHAIRMAN informed the Committee that Mme. Curie-Skłodowska had asked him whether, when she was unable to be present at the meetings of the Sub-Committee, she might be replaced by a specialist, whose name she would submit in advance for the approval of the Chairman.

The Committee agreed to authorise Mme. Curie-Skłodowska to appoint a substitute in the manner suggested for meetings of the Sub-Committee.

17. Public Meeting of the Committee.

The CHAIRMAN stated that there had been some talk of a public meeting to be held when the Committee had finished its work. He was not in favour of this idea. The Committee, which had been appointed by the Council, should, in his opinion, first inform the Council of the result of its discussions. If it held a public meeting, it would perhaps be lacking in deference to the Council. In theory, the Committee had no public existence; it existed only for the Council, which had called it together.

Professor de CASTRO agreed with the Chairman.

Professor RUFFINI also shared the views of the Chairman. He added that the prestige of the Committee would be impaired if it held a public meeting at the beginning of its work, at a moment when its discussions had not yet taken definite shape.

M. DESTRÉE, while agreeing with the preceding speakers, pointed out that the Council of the League, which discussed questions much more delicate than those before the Committee, nevertheless held, towards the end of its sessions, a public meeting, which had the advantage of associating the public and the Press more closely with its work.

He would like to know the opinion of Dr. Nitobe on this subject.

Dr. NITOBÉ stated that, though he did not wish to influence the Committee, he observed that there was a considerable desire on the part of the public for the largest possible degree of publicity for the work of the Committees of the League, as well as for that of the Council.

He thought the Committee might admit to one of its meetings not necessarily a large audience but at least some representatives of the Press.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA was entirely opposed to the idea of a public meeting. Such a meeting might be useful when a Committee was dealing with political questions, but it was not likely to be useful when a committee dealt with technical subjects. Moreover, the work of the Committee was not yet sufficiently advanced to justify a large publicity. The Council would itself decide on the amount of publicity to be given to the Committee's report. The Chairman, if the need arose, might make a statement concerning the results obtained.

Mlle. BONNEVIE thought that, in view of the interest taken by the whole world in the work of the Committee, it was desirable to admit the public to a special meeting, where the Chairman or the Vice-Chairman might give an account of the problems discussed.

Professor MURRAY agreed with Mme. Curie-Skłodowska that publicity was useful for a political committee in order to dispel the apprehensions of public opinion, but that this did not apply to a technical committee. He agreed, however, with Mlle. Bonnevie that the Chairman

might make a statement on the progress of the work of the Committee, in the presence of representatives of the Press.

The CHAIRMAN thought that this last suggestion was hardly advisable, as there would at this stage be no precise results to communicate to the public. The statements which had been regularly issued to the Press gave, in his view, a sufficient publicity to the proceedings of the Committee.

The Committee unanimously agreed not to hold a public meeting, and not to invite representatives of the Press to a semi-public meeting. Members of the Committee might, however, give personal interviews to journalists when they returned to their own countries.

18. Resolutions concerning the Sub-Committee on Bibliography and International Exchanges.

M. DESTRÉE submitted the following texts embodying the decision taken by the Committee at its previous meeting:

“(a) Resolution relative to the Sub-Committee on Bibliography.

“1. Whereas knowledge is pre-eminently the common possession of all nations, the Committee considers it essential to provide for the preservation of knowledge accumulated in the past and for its rapid dissemination in the future.

“2. With a view to ascertaining the best practical methods of obtaining this two-fold aim, the Committee decides to set up a special Sub-Committee composed of Mlle. BONNEVIE, Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA, M. DESTRÉE, Dr. MILLIKAN, Professor MURRAY, Dr. NITOBE, and Professor de REYNOLD.

“3. The Sub-Committee may add to its members a certain number of persons belonging to the two classes of intellectual workers — bibliographers and scholars in special branches of knowledge — whose collaboration appears necessary and whose permanent assistance may be considered useful.

“The following shall be appointed:

*[List to be drawn up later]*¹.

“4. This Sub-Committee will meet, under the chairmanship of Professor Bergson, at a date and place to be fixed by him in his notice convening the meeting.

“5. The Sub-Committee may also obtain the views of other parties, and more particularly the opinions of scientific bodies.

“6. The Sub-Committee will not enter upon its duties until the present resolution has received the assent of the Council of the League of Nations.

“(b) Resolution on International Exchanges.

“The Committee begs the Council to draw the attention of the Assembly of the League of Nations to the International Conventions relating to international exchanges adopted at Brussels on March 15th, 1886. The work of intellectual co-operation would be greatly assisted by the extension of such Conventions. It would be desirable that the measures laid down therein should be fully applied, and that they should be amended and their scope widened, particularly by the granting of free postage and by the extension of these measures to include all publications, even unofficial ones.”

The two resolutions were adopted, subject to any further observations which members might wish to make in regard to them.

19. Methods of facilitating the Exchange of Scientific Information and Co-operation in Research.

Professor de REYNOLD wished to express an opinion which was not personal, but that of the Swiss universities and learned societies.

The exact and natural sciences were better organised internationally than the humanistic sciences, such as history, geography, etc. The most urgent task for the League of Nations was to encourage international co-operation in this latter field. In order to do this, it would be necessary to co-ordinate the efforts of the two chief existing international associations — the International Research Council, which represents the sphere of the exact and natural sciences; and the Union académique internationale, which represents the humanities. But it was necessary first of all to extend the field of their activity and to widen their membership by admitting nations which were not yet represented upon them. This was a very delicate question, in which care must be taken not to act too quickly, for fear of compromising the cause of international co-operation.

He proposed to appoint a sub-committee to get into touch with the representatives of the International Research Council and the Union académique internationale, in order to examine

¹ For the final composition of the Sub-Committee, see minute No. 37, p. 37.

the possibility of an agreement with these two organisations, and to submit a report on the subject to the Committee.

The SECRETARY furnished the Committee with certain additional information concerning the various academic associations. He recalled the fact that the idea of co-operating with these associations had been suggested in a letter from Dr. Hale and Dr. Millikan.

There existed within the International Research Council special branches only for certain exact sciences. Possibly, however, the gaps in the organisation had been filled as a result of the General Assembly of the Council, which had recently taken place. On this point, members of the Committee who were also members of the Council might have information.

The Union académique internationale had not yet created special unions for the various branches of the humanistic sciences. It should be noted that no nation was formally excluded from the Union académique internationale. The statutes of the International Research Council implicitly excluded the ex-enemy nations. During its recent meeting, the Research Council had taken up the question of the admission of these nations, and a resolution had been submitted by Sweden which went very far in this direction.

Professor MURRAY thought that the Committee should not intervene, at any rate for the moment. The question of resuming intellectual international relations was being studied by the International Research Council and by the Union académique internationale.

It was desirable to leave these two organisations to act on their own initiative. Moreover, the League of Nations should not collaborate with an organisation which excluded from its membership the ex-enemy States.

M. DESTRÉE observed that all the learned bodies which had their seats at Brussels, particularly the International Research Council and the Union académique internationale, had decided to consider favourably any request for admission coming from the ex-enemy countries as soon as they were admitted to the League. In collaborating with them, the Committee would not therefore be acting contrary to the spirit of the League.

Professor RUFFINI was in favour of co-ordinating the action of the International Research Council and the Union académique internationale, by enlarging, if necessary, their spheres of action. The Committee, which was composed of specialists, must act with authority, submit precise plans and issue questionnaires. The Committee might then work to advantage, making use of the information obtained.

The action of the Committee must also be extended to the universities, in order to give them the cosmopolitan character which they formerly had.

Dr. HALE stated that the International Research Council had decided to proceed carefully, as the need arose, with the creation of new unions corresponding to the various branches of science.

He had discussed the question of the admission of ex-enemy countries with the scientific representatives of the countries which had suffered invasion, and he had come to the conclusion that it was impossible to ask men of science belonging to these countries to resume relations immediately with the men of science belonging to the ex-enemy countries. He thought it would be necessary to leave things to develop in their own way.

Dr. MILLIKAN agreed with Professor Hale and said that, if a successful issue was desired, no effort should be made officially to encourage the resumption of scientific international relations. It was necessary to be content with unofficial action.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA observed in this connection that it was upon private initiative, which had been very well received, that Professor Einstein had recently attended conferences at the Collège de France.

M. DESTRÉE was extremely sensible of the force of Dr. Hale's statement that it was impossible, in spite of the reasons which existed for resuming relations with ex-enemies, to ignore feelings which were still extremely painful and went very deep.

SIXTH MEETING

Held on Thursday, August 3rd, 1922, at 3.30 p.m.

In the Chair: Professor BERGSON.

Present: All the members present at the previous meeting.

20. Proposal by M. de Torres Quevedo concerning the Direct Collaboration of Academies, Universities, Learned Societies, etc., in the Organisation of Intellectual Work.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO proposed that, in order to initiate a preliminary discussion among the universities of various countries on the question of intellectual co-operation, the following letter should be addressed to the various Ministers of Education:

"The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, in view of its small numbers, cannot have the necessary competence to discuss and solve all the problems relative to the organisation of intellectual work which arise, or which might arise, throughout the world. It wishes, therefore, to obtain the direct collaboration of all academies, universities, learned societies, or even of persons belonging to countries Members of the League of Nations.

"But, in the view of the Committee, collaboration of this nature cannot be obtained by means of a congress to which the representatives of these societies, etc., are convened. This method is rendered impracticable by the difficulty of convening an assembly of this nature, and particularly by the difficulty which such an assembly would experience in reaching conclusions by means of discussions between a considerable number of persons speaking different languages. Moreover, the Committee believes that oral discussions are not adapted to the settlement of questions the solution of which often depends upon statistical data and upon information which must be kept well in mind at the moment when a decision is taken. The best method of treating such questions is by means of written communications, which each society can draw up at its leisure, after discussion.

"The function of the Committee would, therefore, be to secure the possibility of such discussion between the various societies willing to take part in it, and, as far as possible, to take into account all the opinions expressed, at the moment when it is voting on the final recommendations which it must submit to the Council of the League of Nations.

"The Committee proposes to obtain this result by the following means:

"It will instruct its secretariat — the staff of which will have to be increased for the purpose — to print as they are received, either from its members or from outside bodies, any suggestions bearing on the solution of the problems it will have under consideration, or at least to translate them into French or English; and it will circulate these translations by sending to each country likely to be interested in any particular question a certain number of copies for distribution among the learned societies. At the same time, it will request such societies to send in their replies as soon as possible, such replies to be written in any language in common use.

"The circular in question will also point out the desirability of all the societies in a given country making an effort to come, as far as possible, to an agreement as to a particular solution which they intend to support, or at least to limit as far as possible the number of solutions which the various societies may adopt.

"This course would be advantageous, not only for the secretariat, the work of which would be thereby facilitated, but also for the scientific societies, in view of the fact that they would often be obliged to define their views, and also because solutions supported by more than one society would appeal with greater force to the Committee.

"When these first replies are received, the secretariat will translate them all into French and English, and will bring them to the knowledge of all the societies in countries

Members of the League, so that each of them may have the opportunity, either to raise objections to the solutions proposed, or to support them by fresh arguments.

"The discussion of these replies will last as long as the Committee may think desirable, and, once the discussion is concluded, the secretariat will draft a report, taking account, as far as possible, of all the solutions received, and will submit the report to the Committee, which will then be in a position to draw up a definitive report.

"As a first step in the procedure for putting into execution this new method of work, we have the honour, Sir, to transmit to you herewith copies of the list of questions now upon our agenda, and we propose to send you, as we receive them, any suggestions which may be made to us."

Professor RUFFINI considered that the Committee should, above all, not hesitate to act and to assume responsibility, but that it should take measures to assure itself of the support of the learned world, and, in order to obtain this support, should endeavour to secure advantages for it.

The suggestion of M. de Torres Quevedo would enable the Committee to obtain precise information, and would, at the same time, serve as propaganda at the universities on behalf of the League of Nations. The universities could not fail to be flattered at having an appeal addressed to them.

Contact between the Committee and the universities of the world must not be arranged through the intermediary of a sub-committee or a rapporteur, but directly through the offices of the Committee and through its Chairman. The Committee might make an appeal, in which should be included a brief historical account of its activities, pointing out that it had realised the necessity of getting into touch with the big international scientific organisations. The Committee might further recommend the League of Nations to regulate certain scientific work undertaken simultaneously in several countries.

Contact with the International Research Council and the Union académique internationale and with the universities would secure for the Committee the sympathy and interest of the learned world.

21. International Scientific Relations.

M. DESTRÉE offered to get into touch with the Union académique internationale, with the International Research Council, and other organisations which had their seat at Brussels, such as the Institut de Droit international, in order to discuss how the Committee might collaborate with them. In this way the creation of a sub-committee would be avoided.

Professor de REYNOLD stated that he had abandoned the idea of the appointment of a sub-committee. He submitted the following draft resolution:

"As regards international scientific relations, the Committee is of opinion that they are primarily the business of the scientific associations themselves. Consequently, being desirous of avoiding any appearance of interfering in the organisation of such societies, the Committee is of opinion that it can only intervene in agreement with the associations themselves.

"In order to pursue the study of this question, the Committee appoints two of its members to prepare a report on two aspects of the problem:

"1. International co-operation in the sphere of natural science and the exact sciences;

"2. International co-operation in the sphere of historical, geographical and literary knowledge."

The CHAIRMAN observed, with reference to M. de Torres Quevedo's proposal, that the Secretariat had already prepared a draft questionnaire for universities and learned societies. As regards collaboration with the great scientific organisations, this was a very delicate question. The Committee must take care to avoid wounding the pride of such societies by appearing to interfere in their affairs. On the other hand, the Committee must do something, and must show the world of savants that its only wish was to serve the cause of international scientific collaboration.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO stated that the Committee was faced with the enormous task of organising intellectual work in all the countries Members of the League of Nations. The only chance of success for the Committee was to secure the collaboration of all scientists in this work.

Professor de REYNOLD and Professor RUFFINI thought that the real method of interesting learned bodies and academies in the work of the Committee was to show them that they would reap some material advantage from entering into relations with the Committee.

The CHAIRMAN thought that there was not much chance of success if the Committee were to intervene with these organisations, and that the Committee should not risk its prestige in a very difficult undertaking. It might content itself with saying that it was at the disposal of any scientific group.

M. DESTRÉE stated that various members of the International Research Council and of the Union académique internationale, with whom he had had interviews at Brussels, had explained their schemes to him, and had told him the hopes which they entertained of obtaining the patronage and support of the League of Nations.

He proposed that the Committee should entrust one of its members with the task of reporting on the method in which international scientific co-operation might be organised.

Professor de CASTRO thought that, since the Committee had been created by the Council, it enjoyed thereby a special authority, and that it might, therefore, without prejudice to itself, attempt an enquiry on the subject.

Professor de REYNOLD considered that the Committee should assist in the complete realisation of international scientific co-operation, without waiting for such co-operation to realise itself. This was the underlying idea of his proposal.

Professor MURRAY thought that the Committee should not interfere in this matter.

Dr. MILLIKAN agreed with Professor Murray.

The CHAIRMAN proposed the following compromise:

In the first place, the Committee would make known to the various scientific organisations that it was alive to the question of international intellectual co-operation, and that it was at the disposal of such organisations with a view to collaborating with them on the question. The Committee would then place itself in communication with these organisations, but only in a semi-official manner. The question of official relations would be postponed to the next session of the Committee.

Professor RUFFINI urged that the question should not be postponed. If the various international scientific groups received no official communication from the Committee, they might think that the Committee wished to work without them. He therefore proposed that Professor de Reynold's draft should be further defined by the affirmation of the Committee's desire to work with the associations in the matter, and to make use of their work.

The Committee might perhaps entrust M. Destrée with the task of approaching on its behalf in this matter, the Union académique internationale, the International Research Council, and the Institut de Droit international. It might then send out the questionnaire proposed by M. de Torres Quevedo.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO added that the replies to the questionnaire should, as he had proposed, be communicated to all the associations.

The CHAIRMAN stated that there were four proposals before the Committee:

1. The first paragraph of Professor de Reynold's text, which could be strengthened by offering the organisations the good offices of the Committee;
2. The first paragraph of the same text thus strengthened, with the addition of the second paragraph;
3. The two paragraphs in question, with the addition of M. de Torres Quevedo's proposal;
4. His own compromise.

Professor RUFFINI made a fifth proposal, viz., to add to the first paragraph of Professor de Reynold's proposal, completed by M. de Torres Quevedo's draft questionnaire, a provision entrusting M. Destrée with the task of submitting this proposal to the International Research Council, to the Union académique internationale, and to the Institut de Droit international.

M. DESTRÉE thought that the Committee had reached complete agreement. It was useless to take measures for the immediate application of the Committee's decision. It would be sufficient to state that the question remained on the agenda. He added that, on his return to Brussels, he would get into touch with the members of the three associations in question, so that he might come to the next session of the Committee armed with concrete proposals.

Professor de REYNOLD, M. de TORRES QUEVEDO, and Professor RUFFINI supported M. Destrée's proposal.

Professor de Reynold was entrusted with the task of drawing up a text on the lines of this proposal.

SEVENTH MEETING

Held on Friday, August 4th, 1922, at 10.30 a.m.

In the Chair: Professor BERGSON.

Present: The members present at the previous meeting.

22. Inter-University Conference.

The CHAIRMAN asked the Committee if it wished to discuss, one by one, the various questions to be examined in the report¹ drawn up on this subject by the Secretariat, or whether it thought it necessary to ask an International University Conference, or some other competent organisation, to undertake the consideration of these questions.

He, personally, did not think that the Committee could examine all these questions one by one. This would take much time, and would not lead to any conclusion, for, although the Secretariat's report contained exact information as to the past, it could not, without anticipating the work of the Committee, show the same accuracy as regards measures to be adopted in the future. The Committee had, therefore, rather to discuss what method it would be desirable to employ, so that, at a later session, it should be completely informed on the question, and might be able to take definite decisions.

Professor de REYNOLD proposed that the question of a University Congress should alone be discussed, and that everything else concerning the university question, from the international point of view, should be left on one side; that is to say, the exchange of professors, exchange of students and equivalence of degrees. He also proposed to leave on one side the question of an International University, as being a special question. The Committee was not an university authority, and it was not its business to do the work of the universities; it had simply to consider how far it could facilitate the universities' work by the convocation of a University Conference.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA supported Professor de Reynold's proposal, chiefly because the Committee had not prepared any work on this question, whereas the universities had done so more than once.

If the Committee took the initiative in proposing to the Council a Conference of this nature, it must also take an active part in the Conference, *i.e.*, make its own proposals.

M. DESTRÉE agreed with Mme. Curie-Skłodowska and added that the Committee should maintain its supervision over the work of the Conference, and that it should, in particular, determine the Agenda of the Conference.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA agreed with M. Destrée on the last point.

Professor RUFFINI supported the proposals of Professor de Reynold and M. Destrée. It would be desirable to make known to the universities the work accomplished by the Committee. It would also be necessary to limit the number of members of the Conference, in order that useful results might be obtained. Such a limitation of numbers could be carried out by indirect means, on the basis of giving equal representation to all countries.

Professor BANNERJEA thought that the plan of convoking an inter-university conference was interesting and practicable. It would be an extension of what had already been done in the case of the British Empire. The universities of the British Empire had already held a Conference at Oxford.

He suggested that each country should be directly represented. As he, personally, was not qualified, from an intellectual point of view, to represent India, he wished to reserve the right to propose the name of an Indian personality highly qualified to represent the intellectual life of his country.

¹ The preliminary reports of the Secretariat will be published separately.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO agreed with previous speakers, but wondered whether resolutions should be adopted by the Conference as a whole, or only by the members of the Committee, which would have to take the responsibility for the proposals which would be made later to the Assembly.

If it was the members of the Committee who proposed resolutions, the effect would be the same as his proposal of the previous day, which the Committee was not willing to accept, because it was afraid of wounding the *amour-propre* of the universities. But it might be that the *amour-propre* of the universities would prevent them from working under the direction of the Committee.

M. DESTRÉE replied to M. de Torres Quevedo that any university which had proposals to make on the subject of the Inter-University Conference could make them by correspondence. Thus, almost the same result would be obtained as by means of the questionnaire.

M. de CASTRO thought that a sub-committee should be appointed for the purpose of defining the objects of the Conference, and of organising its programme.

As regards the representation of the various universities, the question was a somewhat delicate one. There were, for example, certain universities which might ask to be represented on the same footing as other more important universities. It might, therefore, be well to consider whether the Committee could not ask the Governments to choose the universities.

Finally, it would be desirable that the Conference should take place after the next session of the Committee.

Professor de REYNOLD submitted the following draft resolution:

"1. The League of Nations, being the central organisation for the co-ordination and control of international relations, is entitled to be informed of relations between universities, although it may not interfere with university teaching or infringe the sovereign rights of States.

"2. Anything which contributes towards the institution of more intimate and more constant relations between the higher teaching establishments of the different nations would constitute a powerful aid towards peaceful relations between nations and would be a strong guarantee of civilisation.

"3. In inter-university relations there are three aspects, relating to: (a) professors; (b) students; and (c) studies and their results (diplomas and degrees).

"4. In each of these fields the League of Nations is authorised to make practical suggestions to universities and Governments, with a view to improving inter-university relations and to making them frequent, regular and profitable.

"5. For this purpose, the League has decided, in agreement with the various Governments, to summon an International University Conference, to which will be submitted a programme; this latter will be explained and commented on in a report to be drawn up by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

"This work will relate to the following three points:

"(a) Exchange of professors;

"(b) Exchange of students;

"(c) Equivalent recognition of academic courses and degrees.

"6. The League of Nations lays down the principle that all measures intended to improve inter-university relations must also be calculated to maintain or to raise the standard of university studies and of higher teaching, this being in the League of Nations' own interests.

"The League of Nations considers that it is in the interests of civilisation that higher teaching should strive to disseminate general culture and synthetic ideas, and should tend to discourage excessive over-specialisation and professional utilitarianism.

"7. The League of Nations considers that in the university field, as in the other fields of intellectual life, anything resembling or leading to systematisation should be avoided, and that international organisation should rather be based on the federative principle.

"For this reason, the League proposes the following procedure to give effect to any resolutions which may be taken by the first International University Conference convened by it, and provided for in paragraph 5 above:—

"The countries which accept such resolutions will convene national commissions to consider putting them into practice. When the work of these national commissions is finished, the accepting countries will arrange for the meeting of an international commission, where each of them will be represented by delegates. It will be the duty of this international commission to formulate, not mere proposals such as those formulated by the first Conference, but practical conclusions.

"The accepting countries will thus form the first nucleus for inter-university relations, to which other countries may gradually find it possible to attach themselves.

"8. The League of Nations declares its readiness to second morally and materially any effort for university co-ordination accomplished along these lines, and according to these principles. For instance, it states its readiness to create, in agreement with the Governments and universities, an International Universities Bureau, if the creation of such a bureau is decided upon.

"9. Finally, the League of Nations states that the independent higher schools should also be called upon to take part in international university relations, and, consequently, in any deliberations the object of which is to prepare or to carry such relations into effect."

Professor MURRAY thought that Professor de Reynold's proposal raised considerable difficulties. The Assembly, which would have to be informed of the proposal, would immediately ask whether the German universities were to be convoked. Whether this question was answered in the affirmative or in the negative, the effect would be equally unfortunate. If, on the other hand, it were agreed only to convoke the universities of countries Members of the League of Nations, an equally regrettable effect would be produced.

He therefore proposed the following resolution:

"In view of the difficulty of convoking at the present time a Conference of Universities which should be fully representative of the intellectual life of Europe, the Committee does not recommend that any attempt should now be made to summon such a Conference; but, considering the many advantages which a Conference would possess in other circumstances, the Committee recommends the Council to direct the Secretariat to draw up a plan for holding an International Conference of Universities which shall be, on the one hand, really representative and, on the other hand, not too large in numbers to be efficient."

Professor de REYNOLD agreed.

M. DESTRÉE proposed that it should be stated that the meeting of a University Congress was desirable, and that such a Congress should be convened as soon as it was possible to make it representative of all countries.

Professor RUFFINI understood the scruples which had inspired Professor Murray's proposal, but it seemed to him that the principle laid down by Professor Murray, if pushed to its logical conclusion, amounted to saying that the League of Nations, as at present composed, was incapable of dealing with such questions. Something, however, had to be settled. He proposed, therefore, that all the Members of the League should be convened, and also the United States and Germany.

Professor BANNERJEA also thought that the League of Nations, incomplete as it was, should take some action pending the adhesion of all nations.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA thought that a general invitation might meet with difficulties from two quarters.

On the other hand, the League of Nations, which was in constant communication with the German Government, might address the German Government directly, pointing out the difficulties of the situation and suggesting that the German Government should make arrangements with the German universities to send certain delegates who would be inspired with a spirit of co-operation.

Professor RUFFINI observed that the invitation to Germany would not be without precedent. Germany had already been invited to take part in the work of several Conferences and Committees of the League.

As regards the possibility of a refusal, he thought that the procedure proposed by Mme. Curie-Skłodowska might be followed.

Dr. MILLIKAN did not see any great difference between the two proposals submitted. If it were really desired to internationalise universities, they must be put into touch with one another. For this purpose, there were three fundamental methods, all of which were comprised in Professor de Reynold's proposal, *viz.*, exchange of students, exchange of professors and equivalence of degrees.

On the other hand, the Conference should not include too many representatives. It would be quite possible to have one delegate per country. For the United States, for example, a man could be chosen who represented the views of the Universities Association. In the same way, it might equally be possible to find someone qualified to represent the German universities.

The CHAIRMAN thought that Dr. Millikan's suggestion was altogether different from what had been hitherto proposed. Up to now there had been a question of a Conference of university representatives. Dr. Millikan's proposal involved Government representatives.

Dr. MILLIKAN observed that the delegates whom he proposed would in no way be Government representatives. The Universities Association in the United States, which was the organ of the universities, was in no way dependent on the Government.

The CHAIRMAN thought that this was not the case in all countries.

Dr. MILLIKAN did not think it impossible to find in each country a man capable of representing the university thought of his country. He was entirely in agreement with those who had expressed the view that a Conference composed of too many members would have no chance of success.

Professor MURRAY quite agreed that, pending developments, measures should be taken to prepare a Conference, should it be possible to hold one. On the other hand, he entirely agreed with the observations of the Chairman on Dr. Millikan's proposal. The Committee did not want a Conference of Government delegates, but rather a Conference of university representatives who knew what the universities wanted.

It would also be desirable to have information as to the conclusions reached by the various national university conferences, and even to encourage such conferences in the various countries.

Mlle. BONNEVIE, as a delegate to the Assembly, was able to confirm Professor Ruffini's remark that, whenever the question of convening a Conference arose, the Assembly had always made such a Conference universal. The University Conference should have this same character of universality and it ought to be left to the Germans themselves to appoint their own delegates. If such a solution was not possible, it would be preferable to postpone the question to a more favourable moment.

There were other means which might be considered of encouraging inter-university relations, *viz.*, correspondence, the sending out of questionnaires such as had been proposed, the creation of international scholarships, allowing for the exchange of students, of international courses dealing with subjects of international interest, which might take place each year, sometimes in one country and sometimes in another.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO thought that the difficulties to which attention had been drawn might be avoided if the Committee accepted the idea put forward of sending a questionnaire to all countries. Between now and the next session, there would be time for all the replies to arrive, and the Committee would then have before it all the necessary material.

The CHAIRMAN thought that this procedure would not solve the difficulty of convening a really universal Congress.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO did not agree. Either the universities would reply to the questionnaire, or they would not reply; but they would not concern themselves in any way with the question as to whom the circular had been addressed. On the contrary, the very fact of sending an invitation to take part in the Conference would expose the sender to the possibility of receiving unfavourable replies.

M. DESTRÉE considered that the only thing the Committee had to do was to express to the Assembly of the League its opinion as to the advisability of convening a Congress, and to put forward, if necessary, a proposal for the realisation of this object. The date of the Congress, supposing it took place, must necessarily be far removed. The opinions expressed by Professor Ruffini and Professor Murray seemed to fall in very well with Professor de Reynold's proposal. A Congress of this nature could not be really efficacious unless it was really universal, but this was a political question which concerned public opinion and the general attitude adopted by the League of Nations. He thought therefore that the Committee would agree with Professor Murray in saying that the convocation of a Congress of this nature would be desirable as soon as circumstances permitted all the countries to be consulted.

It would be desirable not to ask Governments to choose university delegates, but to invite the universities directly. Further, in most countries the universities were not all official organisations.

The work of the Congress would have to be determined in advance with some accuracy. It must only concern itself with the question of intellectual co-operation in the university sphere. All the other questions dealt with in the Committee's resolution should be excluded from its work.

He warmly supported M. de Castro's proposal to appoint a sub-committee, and thought it absolutely necessary for the Committee to retain its control over the organisation of the Congress.

Finally, he submitted the following draft resolution:

"As soon as circumstances allow of the convocation of an International Inter-University Congress representative of all countries, the Committee considers that it would be desirable to convene such a Congress with a view to consulting the parties concerned as to the possibility of intellectual co-operation.

"This Congress will be organised on the following lines." [*Here follow Professor de Reynold's proposals.*]

The Committee would appoint a sub-committee, and entrust it with the task of making preparatory studies in such a way that, if the Assembly accepted the proposal and convened the Congress in question, it would be fully prepared; whereas, if the Assembly did not convoke the Congress, the preparations already made could be utilised later.

Professor de REYNOLD entirely agreed with M. Destrée's proposal. It was for the Committee to give a theoretical opinion; it was the business of another authority to put this opinion into practice.

Professor MURRAY also supported M. Destrée's proposal.

M. DESTRÉE wished the Committee to express a desire to see realised in the future the creation of a real International University. A university of this nature would be thoroughly in the spirit of the League of Nations. It would mould the staff which the League of Nations would one day need in all countries for the propagation of its ideas. An intellectual formative process of this nature might be encouraged by meetings, for three or six months, of students from all parts of the world, who would work together under the direction of professors particularly concerned with these international questions. This life of study in common would develop in such students a very valuable spirit of international camaraderie, which they would spread through the world.

He did not intend to develop this plan at the moment. Neither did he intend to defend the International University of Brussels, the somewhat grandiose plans for which had been only partly carried out.

The CHAIRMAN, while considering M. Destrée's plan most interesting, stated that the Committee should not confine itself to the formulation of platonic resolutions; if it supported M. Destrée's recommendation, it would be expected to discuss the methods for its realisation.

M. DESTRÉE, while recognising that, at the moment, the realisation of his proposal was impossible, requested merely that mention should be made in Professor de Reynold's report of the fact that one of the members of the Committee had had the idea of an International University, and that the proposal had been sympathetically and favourably received by the Committee.

Professor de REYNOLD was not blind to the importance of the question, but thought that it necessitated a profound preliminary study.

M. DESTRÉE asked only that, for the benefit of posterity, note should be taken of the fact that in 1922 someone had had the idea of an International University.

The discussion article by article of Professor de Reynold's proposal was postponed to the following meeting.

EIGHTH MEETING

Held on Friday, August 4th, 1922, at 3.30 p.m.

In the Chair: Professor BERGSON.

Present: The members present at the previous meeting.

23. Adoption of M. Destrée's Resolution concerning Co-operation in the Field of Scientific Research.

The Committee adopted in its definitive form the following text, drafted by M. Destrée, which it had approved in principle at its previous meeting:

"The Committee is of opinion that co-operation in scientific research represents, in the whole field of international intellectual co-operation, the best means of bringing men together, by inducing them to devote their energies to the common task of securing peace and advancing civilisation. It is desirous that this co-operation should be developed, but it lays down the principle that such co-operation ought to be the special concern of the scientific societies themselves. The Committee, therefore, while anxious not to interfere either in the organisation or the work of these societies, declares that it is ready to afford them all the practical assistance within its power. Accordingly, it will retain the problem of scientific relations on the agenda of its next session."

24. Resolution by the Chairman on the subject of Archaeological Research.

The CHAIRMAN submitted the following draft resolution, which he had asked M. Luchaire to prepare:

"In spite of the zeal displayed by many nations in discovering and preserving memorials of antiquity, numerous documents of the highest value are still buried, or otherwise inaccessible to scholars, or are in danger of disappearing or of being destroyed. International co-operation in such matters is, therefore, both necessary and justifiable. It is, indeed, already taking place between certain nations, but no international regulations have yet been framed with a view to a fair distribution of this work, and of the responsibilities and advantages which accrue from it. An international understanding might, therefore, be considered for the purpose of:

- "1. Drawing up a list of such archaeological treasures as have not yet been brought to light;
- "2. Preparing a general plan of research;
- "3. Determining regulations as to the method of carrying out researches;
- "4. Establishing international regulations concerning the preservation and legal transfer of archaeological monuments."

The CHAIRMAN begged Professor Ruffini, whose competence in archaeological questions was well known, to submit a report on this subject at the next session.

Professor RUFFINI agreed to do this. He thanked the Committee and drew attention to the fact that he was responsible for the Italian law on the protection of monuments and archaeological research.

M. DESTREE considered that the international regulation of the question should be extended to cover, not only the lands of classical archaeology *i.e.*, Italy and Greece, but also the Balkan countries, Turkey and Asia.

The CHAIRMAN replied that M. Destrée's proposal would be added to the premises of the proposed resolution.

The Committee adopted the Chairman's draft resolution.

25. Proposal by M. Destrée relative to an International Loan and Credit Fund.

M. DESTRÉE thought that, with a view to helping scientific research, it might be possible to establish a system of loans repayable under certain guarantees. He proposed the following resolution:

"With a view to facilitating scientific research, the Committee is of opinion that some scheme of an international loan and credit fund might be considered."

A similar system was already at work in Switzerland and in Belgium.

Professor RUFFINI stated that in Italy also there was collaboration of this nature between scientists and the great industrialists, the latter furnishing the scientists with the funds which they lacked to undertake researches.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA observed that in France the Department of Research and Inventions had a similar function.

M. Destrée's proposal was adopted, and Dr. Millikan was asked to study the question.

26. Proposal by Professor Bannerjea with regard to Passports for Students.

Professor BANNERJEA asked the Committee to take steps to alleviate passport formalities for students proceeding from Asia to Europe and America.

The CHAIRMAN observed that Professor Bannerjea's proposal could not be made in its existing form.

After an exchange of views, during which Professor MURRAY stated that he would investigate the matter, and take a personal interest in cases where passports were refused, Professor Bannerjea withdrew his proposal.

27. Inter-University Co-operation (continued).

Professor MURRAY submitted a draft, drawn up by Dr. Millikan and himself, which was a shortened form of the draft previously proposed by Professor de Reynold:

"The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, considering that co-operation between the universities of the different nations is one of the most important methods of facilitating a good understanding between nations, and international goodwill;

"Suggests to the Council that a small international Conference should be organised as soon as circumstances permit, with a view to examining the methods which may be desirable in respect of:

"(a) Exchange of professors;

"(b) Exchange of students;

"(c) Equivalence of courses and degrees."

The CHAIRMAN thought that, before discussing Professor de Reynold's text, or the texts put forward by Professor Murray and Dr. Millikan, the Committee should decide as to the advisability of appointing a sub-committee to follow up the question.

M. DESTRÉE proposed the following text, *which was adopted*: —

"The Committee entrusts to a sub-committee, consisting of, the duty of preparing for such a Congress notably as regards the fixation of its rules of procedure, its agenda and the general conditions of its organisation."

M. DESTRÉE proposed that the resolution should be accompanied by the following statement:

"As soon as conditions allow of the meeting of an international Congress of all the universities of all countries, the Committee considers it desirable that such a Congress should be summoned in order to receive the views of those concerned on the possibilities of intellectual co-operation."

The statement was adopted.

The Committee then proceeded to consider Professor de Reynold's text:

"The League of Nations lays down the principle that all measures intended to improve inter-university relations must also be calculated to maintain or, if necessary, to raise the standard of university studies and of higher teaching, this being in the League of Nations' own interests.

"The League of Nations considers that it is in the interests of civilisation that higher teaching should strive to disseminate general culture and synthetic ideas, and should tend to discourage excessive over-specialisation and professional utilitarianism."

After discussion, *the Committee agreed to entrust to a small sub-committee the task of revising and elaborating the text of Professor de Reynold's resolution.*

The last three paragraphs of Professor de Reynold's proposal were not retained in the resolution but were reserved for the Committee's report. The last paragraph, concerning the invitations to be addressed to the independent universities, was embodied in the preamble proposed by M. Destrée, which thus read as follows:

"As soon as conditions allow of the meeting of an international Congress of all universities in all countries, both State-controlled or independent," etc.

The CHAIRMAN proposed that the following members should form the Sub-Committee: Professor MURRAY, Professor de REYNOLD, Dr. de CASTRO, Dr. MILLIKAN, M. DESTREE, and Professor RUFFINI.

This was agreed.

28. Communications by the Secretary.

The SECRETARY communicated to the Committee two letters which he had received, one from the International Confederation of Students, asking to be consulted when the Committee dealt with questions concerning students, and the other from the International Federation of University Women, recommending the convocation of an International University Congress and requesting to be represented at such Congress.

He had also received a scheme from Professor Bannerjea recommending the establishment of an International Office for University Information (Annex IV), and a scheme by M. Folkersma, a Dutch subject, for the foundation of an institution for the spread of educational literature.

The Committee agreed to refer these questions to the proper sub-committees, with the exception of Professor Bannerjea's proposal, which was to be added to Professor de Reynold's resolution, as completed and amended by M. Destrée, Dr. Millikan and Professor Murray.

29. Mlle. Bonnevie's Proposal relative to International Scholarships.

Mlle. BONNEVIE proposed that the Committee should consider the question of the creation of international scholarships for students.

Professor BANNERJEA stated that the universities of India were ready to grant scholarships to European students.

After discussion, *the Committee agreed to refer the question to the Sub-Committee on Inter-University relations, with a strong recommendation that the Sub-Committee should consider it.*

30. Professor Murray's Proposal concerning Co-operation with the Press.

Professor MURRAY submitted the following draft resolution:

"Considering the great power possessed by the Press for helping or hindering that international goodwill which is one of the prime objects of the League of Nations:

"The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation requests the voluntary League of Nations Unions to use their good offices in this matter, each in its own country.

"The Committee suggests that the voluntary societies might make it part of their regular duties to correct mis-statements and to clear up misunderstandings concerning the action or policy of foreign countries, both by writing to the Press themselves and by obtaining publicity for statements by foreigners."

He explained that the various League of Nations Unions could, if they brought tactful pressure to bear upon the Press, deter it from pursuing certain campaigns or from publishing articles which were prejudicial to good relations between the nations.

Professor RUFFINI strongly supported Professor Murray's proposal, and pointed out that the strongest support which the Italian League of Nations Union had found in public opinion had been given to it by the three papers whose sympathies had been enlisted on behalf of the League of Nations. He added that the Italian Press had, in the course of the last thirty years, played a most important part in educating the Italian public.

Dr. MILLIKAN enquired whether the Secretariat was not organised to meet invidious Press campaigns.

M. COMERT (Director of the Information Section of the Secretariat) replied that his Section transmitted to the papers, either directly or through agencies, all information relative to the activities of the League. In order, however, to avoid polemics, the Section did not undertake the task of correcting false information, but left this work to the national Unions.

M. DESTRÉE was afraid that the adoption of Professor Murray's proposal might alarm the Assembly or the Council, and proposed that it should be left to the various national Unions to combat tendencious Press campaigns.

After discussion, *the Committee agreed that Professor Murray's suggestion should be forwarded, through Professor Ruffini, to the various National League of Nations Unions.*

NINTH MEETING

Held on Saturday, August 5th, 1922, at 10.30 a.m.

In the Chair: Professor BERGSON.

Present: The members present at the previous meeting.

31. Questions relating to Scientific, Artistic and Literary Copyright.

The CHAIRMAN stated that these questions, which he personally submitted to the Committee, were of the utmost importance. Literary, artistic and scientific copyright was not sufficiently protected. The French Confederation of Intellectual Workers had drawn up a draft convention for the purpose of guaranteeing, by means of a patent, the copyright of an invention or of the application of an invention.

It would seem that there was a great injustice in the inventor of a method of application sometimes drawing great profits from an invention, while the man of science who had made the invention possible had no share in the profits.

The French Confederation of Intellectual Workers had drawn up a draft guarantee, which was not yet of an international character. The Committee might appoint a sub-committee to examine this draft, and to study in a general manner the question of artistic, scientific and literary copyright.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO agreed with the Chairman that a sub-committee should be appointed to consider the question, which he considered to be a very delicate one.

The CHAIRMAN thought that the profits from an invention might perhaps be paid into an international fund for scientific research when the inventor died without heirs. Thus science itself would benefit from the inventions. This idea had been put forward by a member of the French Académie des Sciences.

Dr. MILLIKAN pointed out that the International Chemical Union, which was part of the International Research Council, was at the moment considering this question. The sub-committee would therefore do well to get into touch with the International Chemical Union.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA approved Dr. Millikan's suggestion, and pointed out that, in the case of radium, the discovery instantly became public property and was a source of profit to commercial enterprises, whereas the Radium Institute could only with the utmost difficulty manage to exist.

M. DESTREE supported the Chairman's proposal, and pointed out that intellectual copyright was a precarious possession, since at the end of a certain period it ceased to exist, and became public property. But the solution suggested by the French Confederation of Intellectual Workers aimed at preventing any work which was the subject of a copyright from becoming too suddenly public property. It laid down that, during an intermediate period after the individual right had lapsed, a part of the author's rights should be devoted to science and paid into a special international fund created for the purpose.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA supported M. Destree. She thought that not only the descendants of a great man of learning but scientific institutions also should benefit from his discoveries. In any case, industry should not be the only gainer.

Professor RUFFINI observed that literary and artistic copyright were much better protected than scientific copyright, since the former were highly organised in most countries.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO thought that the heirs of an inventor should also have their part in the profits of his invention, as was the case with the heirs of an artist or a writer.

The CHAIRMAN stated that it would appear that the Committee agreed to nominate a sub-committee, for the purpose of considering all the problems raised, among them the question of inheritance, basing its examination on existing studies, and putting itself into touch with the International Office at Berne and with the International Chemical Union.

This was agreed.

The Sub-Committee was composed as follows: M. DESTREE, Dr. MILLIKAN, Professor RUFFINI, and M. DE TORRES QUEVEDO.

32. Poison Gases (Annex V).

M. DESTRÉE thought that poison gases would be more and more utilised in war. Conventions forbidding the use of this weapon were and would remain inoperative. Their only effect was to give to the less scrupulous combatant the chance of springing a surprise.

The idea had been put forward that men of learning should be obliged to publish their discoveries in this sphere; but, apart from the fact that this obligation would be totally without any sanction, considerations of moral duty might impel the man of science to maintain silence about a discovery which would be useful to the national defence of his country.

The essential thing for an invention for war purposes was that it should remain secret, so that it might be used as a surprise, since history had always shown that, each time an offensive weapon was invented, the correct defence against it was immediately discovered.

It was therefore necessary to supervise the manufacture of poison gases in chemical factories, as such gases were of no value so long as they could not be manufactured in great quantities.

Now, Germany indisputably had a great advantage over all other nations in the number of her factories for chemical products, dyestuffs and fertilisers, which were not affected by the Treaty of Versailles, and which could at a moment's notice be transformed into war factories; so that if any effective action in this direction was required, the question was not merely a scientific but a juridical question. It would be necessary to consider the possibility of a solution which would take away from certain countries their monopoly in the chemical industry, and divide it amongst other countries.

Finally, he proposed that the Committee should ask the opinion on the question of the International Research Council, to which body belonged what was the most competent organisation in this matter, *viz*, the International Chemical Union.

Professor MURRAY explained that the proposal which it had been suggested the Committee should examine had been made by Lord Robert Cecil to the Temporary Mixed Commission for the Reduction of Armaments. On his return to England, Lord Robert had immediately consulted technical and military experts, who had expressed doubts as to the effectiveness of the method proposed. In these circumstances, it would be preferable to give a negative reply to the Council (Annex VI).

Professor de REYNOLD thought that the Committee had no competence to deal with the question.

Dr. HALE thought that, whatever method of procedure was suggested, no satisfactory result could be attained. He therefore proposed that the Committee should make the following reply to the Council's question:

"The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation regrets its inability to suggest methods by which scientific men throughout the world can be induced to publish their discoveries concerning poison gases and the development of chemical warfare."

M. DESTRÉE supported Dr. Hale's proposal.

The CHAIRMAN, while regretting that the Committee should be obliged at its first meeting to give a negative reply to a question put to it by the Council, thought nevertheless that the Committee could not do otherwise than abstain from dealing with the question, in order to avoid giving rise to impossible hopes.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA proposed the following draft resolution:

"The Committee recognises the great importance of the question of the use of poison gases during the war. At the same time, it does not think that it can address a general appeal to savants for the publication of their discoveries in this sphere, in view of the fact that such work is most often carried out under the control of the military and naval services of a country, and consequently no appeal by the Committee could be generally effective."

The CHAIRMAN was afraid that this text might be read to mean that, from the scientific point of view, the Committee had not absolutely abandoned the idea of an appeal. He was afraid, therefore, that the text might raise false hopes in the public mind as to a possible solution of the problem.

M. DESTRÉE thought that a government had a moral right to maintain secrecy concerning an invention which would be useful for national defence.

After discussion, *the Committee unanimously agreed to adopt the draft resolution submitted by Dr. Hale.*

33. Approval of the Committee's Report.

The CHAIRMAN asked the Committee, in view of the fact that it was materially impossible for Professor de Reynold to finish his report before the end of the session, to authorise him to consider this report in collaboration with the Rapporteur, and to approve it on behalf of his colleagues.

This was agreed.

TENTH AND LAST MEETING

Held on Saturday, August 5th, 1922, at 3.30 p.m.

In the Chair: Professor BERGSON.

Present: The members present at the previous meeting.

34. Continuation of the Committee's Work.

The CHAIRMAN thought this question very delicate. The Committee had appointed Sub-Committees, and had entrusted certain of its members with the task of making enquiries. Its work, therefore, was not completed at the end of its first session. On the other hand, the Council had not specifically stated that the Committee was permanent. The Council had appointed the Committee for a certain purpose, and might perhaps misinterpret a request from the Committee for an extension of its powers.

He therefore proposed that the report should mention that the Committee had begun to study a certain number of questions, but that its work would remain unprofitable for the public and for the intellectual world if it could not pursue it at subsequent meetings.

Professor RUFFINI supported the Chairman's proposal.

Professor de REYNOLD observed that the Committee would need a secretariat if it was to continue its work with any advantage. The question of a secretariat naturally involved the question of the funds available for the purpose.

Dr. NITOBE replied that the International Bureaux Section of the Secretariat of the League of Nations could for the moment fulfil the functions of a secretariat of the Committee. The expenses necessary for this work would be charged to the Budget of the League.

The CHAIRMAN thought that Dr. Nitobe's reply would thoroughly satisfy the Committee. Later, when the expenses involved became too heavy for the International Bureaux Section, it might be possible to consider the creation of a special secretariat, and this secretariat would doubtless at that time be granted the necessary funds.

M. DESTRÉE proposed the following draft resolution:

"Final resolution: The Committee, having prepared the ground for the examination of the questions put to it by the League, adjourns *sine die*, and will meet later, on the convention of its Chairman, when the Council of the League sees fit to grant it the means of doing so."

He thought that the Committee would clarify the situation by putting this question to the Council. Otherwise the Committee, whose work was followed by the whole world with impatience and curiosity, might find itself in a difficult situation if it undertook work without being sure of the means of bringing it to completion.

Professor de REYNOLD proposed the following text:

"The Committee, having settled the questions which are preliminary to its work, declares its first session at an end."

Professor MURRAY believed that the Council did not by any means expect the Committee merely to hold a single session. There were even credits provided for other sessions.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA proposed the following text:

"The Committee has accomplished the mission entrusted to it by the League of Nations. It has examined the proposals submitted to it. It desires to collect a certain amount of information, and for this purpose it requests the League of Nations to inform it how it should continue its work."

Dr. NITOBÉ observed that, according to the practice of the League, a Committee sat until its final report was drafted.

The CHAIRMAN communicated to the Committee the explanations which M. Monnet, Deputy Secretary-General, had just given him. The effect of this explanation was that the Committee could meet again whenever it judged it desirable. It was not necessary for the Committee now to fix the date of its next meeting, but in the meantime the Council might refer fresh questions to it.

35. Representation of the Committee at the Assembly.

M. MONNET (Deputy Secretary-General of the League of Nations) explained that each Committee submitted a report to the Council, and that the Chairman of the Committee held himself at the disposal of the Council for the purpose of furnishing, if necessary, all possible information. There was the same rule for the Assembly sessions. As regards the plenary meetings of the Assembly, only Delegates to the Assembly could represent Committees. In the present case, Professor Murray, who had been chosen to represent South Africa at the Assembly, would seem to be indicated to fulfil this duty.

This was agreed.

36. Communication by the Secretary.

The Secretary requested the Committee to authorise him to transmit to Professor de Reynold, who had been entrusted with an enquiry on the subject of Austria, a communication from M. von Pflügl, representative of the Government of the Austrian Republic accredited to the League of Nations, concerning a proposal relative to the assistance to be afforded to Austrian intellectual workers.

This was agreed.

37. Appointment of the Bibliographical Sub-Committee.

After discussion, *the Bibliographical Sub-Committee was appointed as follows:*

The Sub-Committee was to consist of two members of the Committee, and experts, the number of whom was not to be under three or over five.

The two members of the Committee chosen were Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA and M. DESTRÉE.

The experts were to be librarians and scientists, to be chosen as far as possible from different countries. With a view to simplification, the Committee entrusted the Chairman and Mme. Curie-Skłodowska with the task of selecting the experts from the names proposed by the various members of the Committee. These suggestions were to be sent in before November 15th.

38. Sub-Committee on Intellectual Copyright.

M. de TORRES QUEVEDO proposed that the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Copyright should meet in Paris.

This was agreed.

39. Closing Speech of Dr. de Castro.

Dr. de CASTRO thanked the Chairman and his colleagues for having brought to a happy conclusion the work which had been entrusted to them, and which interested in the highest degree all the intellectual workers of Brazil and of Latin America. He expressed the wish that the Committee might one day meet in one of the Latin-American countries.

40. Closing Speech of Professor Murray.

The VICE-CHAIRMAN thanked the Chairman for the masterly fashion in which he had presided over the debates of the Committee. He congratulated himself upon having proposed Professor Bergson as Chairman. The work of the Committee had achieved such fruitful and unanimous results because it had been directed by a philosopher, and, above all, by a philosopher of the attainments of Professor Bergson.

41. Closing Speech of the Chairman.

The CHAIRMAN gave the following address:

"Gentlemen—

"I believe that I shall express the sentiments of all of you in thanking M. de Castro for the words which he has just spoken. I thank him, personally, for his kind words concerning myself. I thank him on behalf of the whole Committee for having rendered us here such devoted assistance, and for having come from so far. He has given us excellent advice and we have followed it.

"I thank also, not without feelings of confusion, our esteemed Vice-Chairman for his infinitely too kind remarks as regards myself. He has been good enough to say that, on a certain number of points, I was able to obtain the agreement of all the members of the Committee, and he deduces reasons why, generally speaking, a philosopher is, in his view, qualified to act as chairman of a committee. He made these deductions like the philosopher he is, and in listening to them I said to myself that, if this general observation was correct, and it was really necessary to be a philosopher in order to preside over a committee, we were very wrong not to choose him for the post. For all the world knows that, side by side with his special studies, in which he is by common consent a past master, there are other branches of study in which Professor Murray is less well known, studies pursued as far and as deep as the others, studies philosophical and psychological. I place him in the category of philosophers as well as in that of scientists. I know that I am interpreting the sentiments of all of you in thanking Professor Murray for having undertaken the functions of Vice-Chairman, and for having on so many occasions given us such good advice.

"And now the moment has come for us to separate. I should like once more to thank you for the great honour which you have done me in inviting me to preside over your work. I should like to tell you how much I appreciate this honour and how much, as our work continued, it seemed to me that its importance was increasing.

"We have been invited by the League of Nations to study in a general manner the problems of international intellectual co-operation. The League of Nations has given us this work. It did not define it because, in its wisdom, it preferred that we should define it ourselves, and it did not wish to limit our field of activity. It did not define the task, but the result of this has been that all around me I have heard it said, not only in France but in other countries, that this idea of the League of Nations was a fine idea and a great idea, but that, when the moment came for its realisation, the Committee would find it difficult to discover subjects for discussion, difficult to draw up a programme of work.

"There certainly were doubts in this matter. Those doubts will certainly be removed if anyone considers our work in its entirety. For myself, I had no doubt; but on my arrival, and even before my arrival, Dr. Nitobe and Professor Halecki, who were good enough to do so carefully the preparatory work for our meetings, had addressed themselves to those of our members who were available, had asked them questions and had drawn up a provisional agenda containing big and important questions clearly defined. We considered this programme, and ourselves found fresh questions to raise. When it became necessary to classify these questions, and when Professor Halecki, for the good ordering of our work, was anxious to include these questions under the two or three large headings which he had established, I perceived the extraordinarily ingenious nature of the classification which was being developed. I saw that we were faced with what we logicians would call a somewhat artificial classification, the kind of classification in which one recognises that the classifier has had to be very skilful and that the subjects brought together are hardly susceptible of reduction to the same category. The number of the questions which our Committee might be called upon to settle is almost illimitable, and, as we proceeded with our work, we began ourselves to notice their importance and the difficulty of finding a method of settling the questions we had raised.

"To sum up: the result of our deliberations is that the object of our discussions is clearly defined, that there are a great number of questions to settle, and that there are very definite methods of settling them.

"There is another question. The League of Nations, in calling upon us to lay the foundations of an organisation for international intellectual co-operation, had in view an aim altogether scientific; but at the same time it had, in all probability, a moral aim, *viz.*: the realisation of a great ideal of fraternity, solidarity and agreement between mankind.

"The League of Nations believed that such agreement could be more readily realised in high intellectual circles, and that it could thence descend progressively among the nations. We have not been able here to plumb the depths of this idea. I had myself arrived with a plan, to which I did not give a concrete form, since our agenda was already overburdened. I am keeping it for a subsequent occasion. I had been proposing to suggest that, in the various universities, there should be special courses, delivered by foreign professors, on the vital interests and the public opinion of other nations. I was convinced that, when these vital interests and this public opinion were well known, when the mentality of other nations was understood, the world would be much more ready to agree. As a matter of fact, we have not been able to urge the importance of what I should call moral progress.

"On the other hand, the meetings which have taken place here have resulted for me in the verification of the truth that it is really easiest to establish agreement between intellectual workers. On this point alone, I venture to differ from Professor Murray — which fact clearly proves that we are all philosophers here. Professor Murray said just now that in the intellectual sphere a man

holds so strongly to his opinions, and becomes so enthusiastic for them, that he tends to match one opinion against another. I think that this is true up to a point and that, as Plato said, ideas are sharply distinct one from another. But Plato added that between ideas there is connection, and thus this disagreement between intellectual workers should naturally end in fundamental agreement. Now, at our very first meeting it was clear that between the members of the Committee there existed a spirit of cordiality and sympathy, and at the end of only five days it really seemed to me that we were all friends together. Such a result could only be achieved amongst intellectual workers. The demonstration of the principle involved is thus complete.

"We are now going to separate. Ladies and gentlemen, I wish to tell you at parting what a very pleasant memory I personally shall preserve of this meeting. I think that we shall all agree to transmit, before separating, some kind of message to the League of Nations, and to tell it, on behalf of the intellectual workers of the whole world, whom we are supposed to represent here, that we consider that it has conceived a fine and noble idea, that we have done everything in our power to realise this idea, and that, after profound study of the questions before us, we have arrived at the conclusion that the idea is certainly and entirely realisable."

Professor RUFFINI thanked all the members of the Secretariat who had taken part in the work of the Committee.

Dr. NITOBÉ, on his own behalf and of behalf of the members of the Secretariat, expressed his gratitude for the words of thanks which had been addressed to the Secretariat.

ANNEX I.

RULES OF PROCEDURE

ADOPTED BY THE COMMITTEE ON AUGUST 1st, 1922.

Article 1.

The Committee is constituted and exercises its power in conformity with the provisions of the Assembly resolution dated September 21st, 1921.

Article 2 (reserved).

The Committee shall meet as the Chairman may direct, or at the request of one its members approved by a majority of the other members.

The Committee shall be convened by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

Article 3.

The Committee shall elect its Chairman and Vice-Chairman from among its members.

The Chairman shall remain in office for one session of the Committee, and for the subsequent period until the Committee next meets.

Article 4.

Experts from international organisations or individuals shall be heard when the Committee so decides by a majority vote.

The International Labour Office may detail an expert selected by itself to sit on the Committee in an advisory capacity, when questions within the competence of the Office are discussed.

Article 5.

The secretariat of the Committee shall be provided by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

Article 6.

The provisional agenda for each session of the Committee shall be prepared by the Secretariat and transmitted to the members of the Committee as soon as possible. If, after the circulation of the agenda, any member proposes new questions for discussion, the Committee shall decide whether or no such questions shall be discussed.

Article 7.

During the discussion of any question, a member may move the previous question or the adjournment. Such a motion shall have priority.

Article 8.

The quorum at the meetings of the Committee shall be constituted by a majority of the members.

The Committee shall take all decisions by a majority vote of the members present at the meeting. In case of equality of votes, the Chairman shall have a casting vote.

When unanimity cannot be obtained, the minorities shall have the right to attach to the resolution a note explaining their reasons for opposing it.

Article 9.

The Committee may constitute Sub-Committees and define their duties and their composition. The Chairman of each Sub-Committee shall be a member of the Committee.

Article 10.

The Committee may decide by a majority vote to make one or more of its meetings open to the public.

Article 11.

The Rules of Procedure may be modified by a majority of the members of the Committee present.

ANNEX II.

AGENDA.

A. QUESTIONS PROPOSED BY THE SECRETARIAT.

1. Election of Chairman.
2. Rules of Procedure.
3. Adoption of the Agenda.
4. Report by the Secretariat on the proposals submitted to it by various organisations and persons on the subject of intellectual co-operation.
5. Discussion of the proper methods of facilitating the exchange of scientific information and co-operation in research.
6. Discussion of the proper method of encouraging inter-university relations.
7. Discussion on the international organisation of bibliography and the exchange of publications.
8. Appeal to the scientists of the world concerning discoveries in poison gas and chemical warfare.

"The Temporary Mixed Commission for the Reduction of Armaments decided, at its meeting of July 3rd, 1922, that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should be asked at its next meeting, in August, to advise the Temporary Mixed Commission as to the methods by which the co-operation of scientific men might be enlisted in carrying out the Resolution of the Assembly with reference to an appeal to scientific men to publish their discoveries concerning poisonous gases and the development of chemical warfare."

B. QUESTIONS PROPOSED BY MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE.

1. Enquiry into the state of intellectual life in the various countries.
2. Consideration of the means of assisting immediately the countries:
 - (a) where intellectual life is threatened by an imminent disaster ;
 - (b) where intellectual life is impoverished and hampered by the lack of educational facilities for the overwhelming masses of the population.
3. Salaries and wages of intellectual workers.
4. Co-operation with the Press.
5. An international language.
6. Scheme for the creation of an international intellectual centre.
7. Question of the continuation of the Committee's work.

ANNEX III

REPORT FROM THE SECRETARIAT OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS ON THE PROPOSALS SUBMITTED TO IT WITH REGARD TO INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION BY VARIOUS ORGANISATIONS AND PERSONS.

The various proposals are summarised and classified in this report. Attention is given, first of all, to certain schemes of a general nature with regard to the whole sphere of intellectual co-operation, or at least several of its aspects. Then follows a summary of the proposals relating to the three principal questions placed on the provisional agenda of the first session of the Committee, namely, co-operation for scientific research, inter-university relations, bibliography and exchange of publications. Several proposals affecting the wider sphere of education in general are given as annexes to the second of these three groups. The members of the Committee will have to

decide whether they desire to consider these schemes as well. The same remark applies to certain proposals with regard to the position of intellectual workers.

Several international Congresses have made recommendations to the League of Nations in connection with intellectual co-operation. It has been considered desirable to mention at least such recommendations as have been adopted at conferences of the International Union of Associations for the League of Nations.

I. GENERAL SCHEMES.

1. Paris, July 8th, 1920.

M. P. Appell, Rector of the University of Paris, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the French Association for the League of Nations, forwards, on behalf of this Association, a recommendation with regard to the creation, as an organisation of the League of Nations, of an Office for Intellectual Intercourse and Education, together with the "Draft Convention setting up a permanent organisation for the promotion of international understanding and collaboration in educational questions and in science, literature and art," prepared by *M. Julien Luchaire* (see Council document of the League of Nations C. 3. 20/4/20).

2. Vienna, June 23rd, 1921.

The Federal Chancellor of the Austrian Republic submits a scheme with regard to the international co-ordination of intellectual work, drawn up by *M. F. Matsch* and approved by the Rectors of the Universities and Academies of Vienna.

3. Brussels, August 20th, 1921, and July 1922 (letter to the members of the Committee).

The Union of International Associations forwards its Report on the international organisation of intellectual work, together with a draft international convention (see pamphlet No. 97 of the Union).

4. Lausanne-Geneva, July 1922.

M. E. F. Chavannes, President of the Swiss Federation of Intellectual Workers, and *M. S. Kaidanowsky*, submit a report on the question of intellectual co-operation.

5. Cracow, December 28th, 1921.

The Polish Academy makes the following suggestions:

- (1) That the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should appoint corresponding members in all countries.
 - (2) That visas for any journey for scientific purposes should be given free of charge.
 - (3) That facilities should be afforded for access to libraries, archives and other collections, by means of an international agreement.
 - (4) That facilities should be given for the exchange of books by granting free postage.
-

6. Oxford, July 19th, 1922.

Professor Murray forwards to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation some papers giving information with regard to the "League of Culture" founded by *Prince Charles de Rohan*.

II. CO-OPERATION IN SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

7. London, March 14th, 1922.

The Secretary to the British Cabinet forwards a copy of a letter from *Dr. R. A. Millikan, Foreign Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences* (Pasadena, California), and *Dr G. E. Hale, Member of the Executive Committee of the International Research Council*, to Lord Balfour, suggesting that the International Research Council and the Union académique internationale should be fully represented on the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and that full consideration should be given to both of these bodies by the Council of the League.

8. Berne, July 13th, 1922.

The Danish Minister at Berne forwards a statement concerning the organisation and objects of the Danish International Scientific Foundation.

III. INTER-UNIVERSITY RELATIONS.

9. London, June 21st, 1919.

Mr. George Nasmyth, Official Representative to the Peace Conference and former President of the International Committee of the "*Corda Fratres*" International Federation of Students, submits a memorandum on the international exchange of students, and the establishment of an International Bureau of Universities in connection with the League of Nations.

10. Geneva, July 20th, 1922.

M. O. Halecki, Professor at the University of Warsaw, submits a scheme for an International Conference of Universities.

11. October 13th, 1920.

Mr. H. C. Andersen transmits a scheme for establishing a "University of the Nations", together with an association for its development.

12. Paris, March 30th, 1921.

The French League of Nations Department transmits a Memorandum from *M. Gustave Hubbard*, a former deputy, addressed to the Council of the League of Nations, on behalf of the "Indépendance et Concours" Committee, requesting it to undertake a preliminary enquiry with regard to the foundation of a "super-national" university.

13. Paris, October 11th, 1920.

The International School of International Law (Institute of International Advanced Studies), founded in Paris on the initiative of *M. A. Alvarez*, *M. P. Fauchille*, and *M. A. de Lapradelle*, asks the Council of the League of Nations to place it under the patronage of the League and give it material support. (Proposed at the 11th Meeting of the Council, December 14th, 1920, by *M. Léon Bourgeois* and *M. Politis*, and referred to the Secretariat for examination.)

14. Berne, September 16th, 1921.

The Central Office of Swiss Universities asks the Secretariat of the League of Nations to keep it fully informed of that part of its work which concerns high schools, and to communicate to it all relevant decisions, measures, schemes, etc.

15. New York, February 25th, 1922.

The Institute of International Education forwards the announcement of the International Students' Tours arranged under its auspices for the summer of 1922.

16. Brussels, January 20th, 1921.

The International Federation of Students asks for the patronage of the League of Nations.

17. Brussels, July 8th, 1922.

The International Federation of Students recommends:—

(1) That students should be directly associated with the work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation; and (2) that the Federation should be taken as a basis for all action affecting students, exchanges of students from one university to another and their participation in the studies of the International University.

18. London, June 10th, 1922.

The International Federation of University Women offers practical co-operation with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation appointed by the League.

ANNEX TO PART III: EDUCATION IN GENERAL.

19. Tokyo, September 27th, 1920.

The Japanese Association of Teachers submits to the First Assembly of the League of Nations the proposal that an International Education Council should be convened under the auspices of the League, and that in such a Council should be formulated a plan to set up a permanent bureau of international education, with various committees (e.g., a committee on the critical

examination of text-books). Recommended (London, November 9th, 1920) by the *Workers' Educational Association*, and submitted again to the Second Assembly (September 12th, 1921) on behalf of *eight Japanese educational and peace societies and scientific bodies*.

20-28. Other proposals with regard to the foundation of a Bureau (Committee, Council, Section, etc.) for education, forwarded by *Mr. H. A. L. Fisher*, President of the British Board of Education; *Mrs. F. F. Andrews*; *Mr. Maximilien A. Mügge*; *Lord Gorell* (World Association for Adult Education); *M. Jean Pohl*, Professor at the Prague Academy of Commerce; *Dr. Arnesen* (Women's League for Peace and Freedom); *Mme. Dora Melegari*; *M. A. Ferrière*, Director of the International Bureau of Modern Schools; *Mr. S. P. Duggan*, Director of the International Institute of Education, New York.

29. London, May 18th, 1922.

The League of Nations Union enquires whether there is any possibility of the convening of an international education conference under the auspices of the League of Nations.

30. Augusta (U.S.A.), June 19th, 1922.

The State Superintendent of Public Schools forwards information relative to the proposed World Conference on Education which the National Educational Association of America is planning to hold in 1923.

31. Vienna, September 30th, 1920 (transmitted by the *Austrian Legation in London*).

The Society for World Culture invites the League to facilitate the creation of an International Institute for World Culture, and transmits a resolution concerning an international system of education based on object teaching.

32. Meilen (Switzerland), September 1921.

Dr. Rudolph Laemmel forwards to the President of the Assembly of the League of Nations his pamphlet containing an account of the scheme for the foundation of an International School (Völkerschule).

33. Rome, May 31st, 1920.

The Italian Delegate to the League of Nations forwards a Memorandum from *M. Giuseppe Bortone*, Professor at the Teachers' Training College of Fano, on the compilation of "international manuals".

34. Geneva, July 20th, 1921.

M. J. Palivec, Director of the Czechoslovak Press Bureau, states that he has suggested to the competent Czechoslovak authorities that they should have a statement of the ideals of the League of Nations drawn up and included in school books.

35. Berlin, August 5th, 1921.

The German Pacifist Students' Union (Deutscher Pazifistischer Studentenbund) suggests that the League of Nations should invite States Members of the League to include instruction with regard to the League of Nations (Völkerbundskunde) in their school curricula.

36. Geneva 1922.

M. Nogueira submits proposals with regard to the teaching of international law in elementary schools.

37. London, May 31st, 1921.

The League of Nations Union forwards Minutes of proceedings of a Deputation from the Education Committee of the Union, which waited upon the President of the British Board of Education with reference to the teaching of history in schools.

38. Tourcoing, March 11th, 1921.

The Directorate of the International Bureau of the National Federations of Secondary School Teachers offers the assistance of this Bureau to the League of Nations.

39. Gateshead, October 13th, 1921.

Mr. Frederick Tait asks the Secretariat of the League to furnish him with statistics on education in the chief countries of the world.

IV. BIBLIOGRAPHY AND EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS.

40. Geneva, July 13th, 1922.

Miss Wilson communicates certain information relative to: (a) the question of an international bibliographical conference (with an explanatory note on standardisation of methods); (b) the question of an International Library.

41. Bryn Mawr (Pennsylvania), March 25th, 1922.

Dr. S. M. Kingsbury transmits the Report of a Committee on Social Abstracts, appointed by the *American Sociological Association*, and asks whether any co-operation with the League of Nations would be possible.

42. Paris, June 14th, 1922.

L'Institut scientifique et industriel proposes to establish direct relations with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in respect of bibliography, and forwards a communication made by its Director, *M. Durand Reville*, in September 1920, to the International Conference on Bibliography at Brussels.

43. London, July 18th, 1922.

Mr. A. F. Folkersma, Director of the Office for Popular Literature in the Dutch East Indies, submits to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation a memorandum on the establishment of a "House of Humanity" in order to prepare and to distribute an "International Literature" in all languages.

44. Geneva, June 6th, 1922.

Mr. Conrad Hoffmann, Executive Secretary of the *European Student Relief* (World's Student Christian Federation), gives information of a plan for supplying literature (standard libraries) to the Russian universities, and asks whether the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation could promote interest in this plan and possibly afford financial assistance.

V. INTELLECTUAL WORKERS.

45. Vienna, February 22nd, 1921 (telegram).

The Central Council of Austrian Intellectual Workers ("Zentralrat der geistigen Arbeiter Österreichs") asks for information with regard to the steps taken to found an International Organisation of Intellectual Workers, and offers its collaboration.

46. Vienna, May 30th, 1922 (telegram).

The above-mentioned organisation expresses its satisfaction at the creation of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and renews its offer of collaboration.

47. Vienna, March 17th, 1922.

Mme. Hélène Granitsch, Director of the *Economic Union of Intellectual Workers and of the Middle Classes* (Wirtschaftsverein der geistigen Arbeiter und des Mittelstandes), submits to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation a Memorandum on the intellectual workers' movement in Austria.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS ADOPTED AT CONFERENCES OF THE INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ASSOCIATIONS FOR THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

(a) The third Conference (Brussels, December 1919) invites the League of Nations to set up a technical organisation for education and science.

(b) The fourth Conference (Milan, October 1920) requests the League of Nations to set up at the earliest opportunity an International Education Bureau.

(c) The sixth Conference (Prague, June 1922) asks the Secretariat of the League of Nations to prepare and, if possible, to publish, in French and English, two textbooks dealing with international collaboration and the League of Nations, for the use of children under twelve years of age, and from twelve to sixteen years of age.

ANNEX IV.

PROPOSAL OF PROFESSOR BANNERJEA WITH REGARD TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A BUREAU OF INFORMATION ON COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY TEACHING.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should report to the Assembly of the League of Nations on the need of receiving and tabulating information on methods of teaching, curriculum and organisation of studies, and results of philosophical, historical and sociological research at the colleges and universities of countries Members of the League.

This information to be collated and classified by an Information Bureau, under the auspices of the Council of the League, and to be subject to the direction of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

ANNEX V.

APPEAL TO SCIENTISTS FOR PUBLICATION OF DISCOVERIES AS TO POISON GAS.

MEMORANDUM BY THE SECRETARY-GENERAL.

The Second Assembly of the League of Nations adopted the following resolution on October 1st, 1921:—

“That the Temporary Mixed Commission be asked to examine, in consultation with the Permanent Advisory Commission, whether it is advisable to address an appeal to the scientific men of the world to publish their discoveries in poison gas and similar subjects, so as to minimise the likelihood of their being used in any future war.”

The action by the Assembly was based upon a Report of the Third Committee of the Assembly on Reduction of Armaments (see Records of Second Assembly, page 649).

The discussion of the subject in the Third Committee (see Records of Second Assembly, Meetings of Committees, page 336), according to the Minutes of the 10th Meeting of the Third Committee, on September 28th, 1921, was as follows: —

“Lord Robert CECIL (South Africa) said that the difficult question arising from the sixth Resolution had already been considered by the League. The Permanent Advisory Commission, in particular, had submitted a report to the Council on the use of poison gas, and the Council had formulated two resolutions on this matter, but no decision had been taken.

“The question had lately been considered by an association of British scientists. The use of poison gas would be greatly diminished if each nation were convinced that this weapon could be turned against itself.

“The best method of preventing the use of these gases was to appeal to the scientists of all countries to make all discoveries public. In that way, nothing would be hidden and no nation would consider itself in a privileged situation with regard to the others.

“Mr. FISHER (British Empire) agreed with Lord Robert Cecil on the main points of the question, but was afraid that this Resolution would not be very effective, since the Governments would carry on their research in secret in the laboratories.

"Lord Robert CECIL (South Africa) was more optimistic than Mr. Fisher and placed great faith in the support of public opinion. He proposed, in agreement with Mr. Fisher, the following modified text:—

" 'That the Temporary Mixed Commission should be asked to consider, in conjunction with the Permanent Advisory Commission, whether it was advisable to appeal to all scientists to publish their discoveries on poison gases and other similar questions, in order that the probability of their employment in a future war should be reduced to a minimum.'

"M. SCHANZER (Italy) was prepared to vote for Lord Robert Cecil's new formula, although he doubted whether it would be effective.

"M. REYNALD (France) was glad that the form of the Resolution had been modified; he too was apprehensive as to the effect of the Resolution. The suppression of the use of poison gases could only be achieved by means of an agreement between the different Governments; and there could never be perfect publicity. The last paragraph of Article 8 of the Covenant expressed the same opinion as this Resolution, but with greater prudence. The exchange of information should be effected rather between the Governments than by total publicity.

"M. LANGE (Norway) thought it doubtful whether the League ought to study the question of rendering war more humane; he supported M. Reynald's statement on the subject of the exchange of information, and would like to see Article 8 applied literally. He proposed to broaden the text of the Resolution and to replace the words, 'and other similar questions', by the more definite words, 'and other methods of warfare'.

"Lord Robert CECIL (South Africa) was not in favour of extending the Resolution, for fear of making it ineffective. Poison gases formed a separate category of engines of war, for it was possible to use them against the civil population; moreover, the expression, 'and other similar questions', should satisfy the Norwegian Delegate. He insisted on the importance of having the opinion of professionals to side with them.

"As regards M. Reynald's objection, Lord Robert CECIL declared that, although he had helped in the drafting of the Covenant, he had not a superstitious respect for it, and therefore he wished to submit a Resolution which would throw light on the provisions of Article 8.

"The CHAIRMAN put M. Lange's proposed amendment and Lord Robert Cecil's Resolution to the vote.

"Eleven votes were cast in favour of M. Lange's amendment and eleven against.

"Lord Robert CECIL (South Africa) asked M. Lange not to insist upon his amendment.

"M. LANGE (Norway) withdrew his amendment.

"Lord Robert Cecil's Resolution was adopted unanimously."

Since the adjournment of the Second Assembly, the question has not been considered by the Permanent Advisory Commission.

The Resolution of the Assembly was considered by the Temporary Mixed Commission on Armaments at its meeting in Paris, July 3rd to 7th, 1922. The Temporary Mixed Commission adopted the following Resolution:—

"The Temporary Mixed Commission decided that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should be asked at its next meeting in August to advise the Temporary Mixed Commission as to the methods by which the co-operation of scientific men might be enlisted in carrying out the Resolution of the Assembly with reference to an appeal to scientific men to publish their discoveries concerning poisonous gases and the development of chemical warfare."

This Resolution was submitted to the Council of the League of Nations at its meeting in London, July 17th to 22nd, 1922, and the Council approved the Resolution in the following terms:—

"Upon the request of the Temporary Mixed Commission, the Council invites the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to consider the methods by which the co-operation of scientific men throughout the world might be enlisted with a view to the publication of their discoveries concerning poisonous gases and the development of chemical warfare, in order to reduce in future wars the possibilities of the use of poisonous gases.

"The Council hopes that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will be able to hand its Report to the Temporary Mixed Commission before the end of the month of August."

To make the documentation complete, there should be added the text of Articles 5 and 6 of the Treaty in relation to the use of submarines and noxious gases in warfare, as adopted at the Washington Conference, February 6th, 1922, although this Treaty has not yet been ratified:—

"Article 5.

"The use in war of asphyxiating, poisonous or other gases, and all analogous liquids, materials or devices, having been justly condemned by the general opinion of the

civilized world and a prohibition of such use having been declared in treaties to which a majority of the civilized Powers are parties,

"The Signatory Powers, to the end that this prohibition shall be universally accepted as a part of international law binding alike the conscience and practice of nations, declare their assent to such prohibition, agree to be bound thereby as between themselves and invite all other civilized nations to adhere thereto."

"Article 6.

"The present Treaty shall be ratified as soon as possible in accordance with the constitutional methods of the Signatory Powers and shall take effect on the deposit of all the ratifications, which shall take place at Washington.

"The Government of the United States will transmit to all the Signatory Powers a certified copy of the procès-verbal of the deposit of ratifications.

"The present Treaty, of which the French and English texts are both authentic, shall remain deposited in the Archives of the Government of the United States, and duly certified copies thereof will be transmitted by that Government to each of the Signatory Powers."

In submitting this Treaty to the Washington Conference, Mr. Root made the following statement:—

"It undertakes further to prevent temptation to the violation of these rules by the use of submarines for the capture of merchant vessels, and to prohibit that use altogether. It undertakes further to denounce the use of poisonous gases and chemicals in war, as they were used to the horror of all civilization in the war of 1914-1918.

"Cynics have said that in the stress of war these rules will be violated; cynics are always near-sighted and often and usually the decisive facts lie beyond the range of their vision.

"We may grant that rules limiting the use of implements of warfare made between diplomatists will be violated in the stress of the conflict. We may grant that the most solemn obligation assumed by Governments in respect of the use of implements of war will be violated in the stress of conflict; but beyond diplomatists and beyond Governments there rests the public opinion of the civilised world, and the public opinion of the world can punish. It can bring its sanction to the support of a prohibition with as terrible consequences as any criminal statute of Congress or of Parliament.

"We may grant that in matters which are complicated and difficult, where the facts are disputed and the argument is sophistic, public opinion may be confused and ineffective, yet when a rule of action, clear and simple, is based upon the fundamental ideas of humanity and right conduct, and the public opinion of the world has reached a decisive judgment upon it, that rule will be enforced by the greatest power known to human history. The triumph of this power, that is the hope of the world, will be a hope justified."

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation may also desire to have the text of a letter from Mr. J. E. Myers, O.B.E., D.Sc., A.L.C., of the Chemical Department, Manchester University, to Lord Robert Cecil, which is as follows:—

"I have read in the papers to-day that the League of Nations has adopted your proposal to invite scientists to make public discoveries of military importance.

"I beg leave to bring to your notice my letter to the *Manchester Guardian* of September 8th, which was as follows:—

" 'With reference to Sir Edward Thorpe's address and your leading article on the subject of the use of poison gases in warfare, I should like to make the suggestion that, as a contribution to the 'real power' of the League of Nations, British and other scientists should undertake to communicate discoveries of military value to the League, so that peace might be maintained because the League had the best weapons.' "

"I consider that, if the League set up a department for dealing with such matters, scientists would be ready to disclose their discoveries. I cannot imagine why they should be ready to put powerful weapons into the hands of all and sundry, which would be the case if such discoveries were published. I think that the prestige of the League would be greatly increased if steps were taken along the lines I have indicated. Scientific people are generally international in outlook, and they have no tradition, at least in this country, of attachment to Government departments.

"I may explain my interest in the matter by saying that I am strongly in favour of a League which can back its decisions in the most formidable manner, and by adding that the process used for making mustard gas in this country was derived from experiments in which I took a considerable part. I should be most happy to help in any scheme of this kind."

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will doubtless wish to consider:—

(1) How far experiments with reference to poison gas are now being conducted by scientists.

(2) How far the results of such experiments are at present being kept secret.

(3) How far the publication of results would be practicable.

(4) Methods by which such publication might be effected.

ANNEX VI.

NOTE BY PROFESSOR GILBERT MURRAY ON THE POSSIBLE UTILITY OF AN APPEAL TO SCIENTISTS TO PUBLISH THEIR DISCOVERIES WITH REGARD TO THE USE OF POISON GAS IN WAR.

1. It was proposed at the Second Assembly that the League should issue an appeal to scientists throughout the world to publish all their discoveries with regard to poison gas and its use in warfare.

This proposal was put forward because it was believed that scientific men throughout the world might be willing, by a common and universal consent, to accept such an invitation. The President of the British Association, a few weeks previously, had pronounced an emphatic denunciation of the prostitution of science to such ends as the preparation of chemical warfare. It was believed that, if scientists answered such an appeal, it would have the effect of taking away from any prospective belligerent the hope of rapid victory by means of the utilisation of some new and deadly gas which it might believe to be known only to itself.

As the preparation of chemical warfare is very easily conducted in secret, it was felt to be most important to remove any temptation to such secret abuses of any disarmament agreement that might be come to. It was felt that the appeal to scientists was the only effective step which could be taken to obviate this danger.

2. Investigations have been carried out by various bodies in my country, and the conclusions reached are that an appeal of this sort is not really a practical measure and would not lead to the results desired. The main arguments may be summarised as follows :—

(a) Publication of discoveries would probably result in placing some information in the hands of any unruly elements that may exist in the various communities of the world. This would be directly contrary to the general trend of legislation in the world, which is to regulate and control the distribution of lethal weapons both for internal use in a State and for export (*i.e.*, Arms Traffic Convention, 1919, and recent State domestic legislation). The weapon of knowledge, the dissemination of which is suggested by this appeal, is in the future likely to be more dangerous even than material weapons.

(b) While achieving this unfortunate result, it would not, on the other hand, secure the effective publication of inventions likely to be really dangerous in a big war. Any invention with regard to the use of gas, to be useful in war, must be tested on a large scale. This can only be done by scientists who work under government orders and with government subsidies. Such scientists would naturally be, above all, experts in this work and, in so far as they work under government orders, would, of course, carry out their investigations under an absolute pledge of secrecy to the government which they serve.

It can only be hoped, therefore, that the less dangerous inventions will be published, and this course would be worse than no publication at all, since it would tend to produce a certain feeling of false security.

(c) Even if the really important inventions were published by the scientists of some countries, there could be no method of ensuring that the same should be done by all.

The effect of this would be, in the event of war, to place those countries which responded to the appeal at a disadvantage as compared with those which did not, because the latter would have the advantage of the discoveries of the former, while retaining their own for themselves.

3. I venture, therefore, to suggest that the appeal to scientists would not produce any useful results.

4. Further, so far as the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation is concerned, the matter appears to be of so highly specialised and technical a character that only gas experts, who give their whole lives and energies to this particular work, can reach a conclusion which should carry weight.

I would, therefore, propose that the report of the Committee should be on the following lines :—

It should say that the question is too specialised a one for it to deal with itself, but that, in view of the immense importance of the use of gas in any future war, it is desirable to establish a special small international committee of gas scientists; that this committee, when established, should give a final and authoritative answer to the following questions :—

(a) Can the prohibition or limitation of the use of gas in any future war be made effective ?

(b) If not, what will be its effect upon the nature of warfare ? What extension of the use of gas against civilians and through aircraft may be expected, etc. ? A detailed answer on this point would be much appreciated.

(c) Would an appeal to scientists do anything to mitigate these effects, or to lessen the probabilities of gas being used in future ?

(d) If not, are there any other steps which could be taken ?

(e) Is it possible to control or to check the secret preparation of chemical warfare ?

5. As will be seen from the previous paragraphs, I am not very sanguine that the proposed Expert Committee will be able to suggest measures of a positive kind. It is, however, perhaps worth pointing out that even a report of a negative character would have a very salutary effect on public opinion, since it would impress upon the public in general in a very striking way that the only way to prevent the most terrible horrors is to prevent the outbreak of war itself.

It is true that one of the Treaties signed at Washington, but not yet in force, repeats the prohibition against the use of poison gas in warfare; this fact will, of course, not be overlooked by the Council or by the Assembly, in deciding whether or no to appoint such an Expert Committee as I have suggested.

6. The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might also recommend a similar enquiry into the possibilities of "germ" warfare. This might be carried out by the Health Committee of the League.

SOCIÉTÉ DES NATIONS

Validité réciproque, dans tous les Etats, de certains diplômes de l'enseignement secondaire ; création d'une université internationale ; institution d'un degré d'enseignement supérieur dans chacun des pays Membres de la Société des Nations, dont les diplômes seraient valables pour chacun d'eux.

LETTRE DE M. QUIÑONES DE LEÓN,

REPRÉSENTANT DE L'ESPAGNE AU CONSEIL DE LA SOCIÉTÉ DES NATIONS, AU SECRÉTAIRE GÉNÉRAL
DE LA SOCIÉTÉ.

PARIS, le 30 juillet 1923.

Je reçois des instructions de mon gouvernement à l'effet de vous prier de bien vouloir faire le nécessaire pour assurer l'inscription à l'ordre du jour de la prochaine Assemblée des propositions, dont vous voudrez bien trouver le texte ci-joint, relatives à la validité réciproque, dans tous les Etats, de certains diplômes de l'enseignement secondaire, à la création d'une université internationale et à l'institution d'un degré d'enseignement supérieur dans chacun des pays Membres de la Société des Nations, dont les diplômes seraient valables dans chacun d'eux.

Propositions du Gouvernement espagnol.

I. Les diplômes de l'enseignement secondaire ne conférant pas le droit d'exercer une profession, seront valables dans tous les différents Etats aux effets de pouvoir y suivre les cours d'enseignement supérieur.

II. Création d'une université internationale autonome avec juridiction et franchise académiques, dans une des quatre universités de la chrétienté, Paris, Salamanque, Oxford ou Bologne, avec privilège pour conférer des degrés et pour délivrer des diplômes ayant valeur académique dans tous les Etats membres de la Société des Nations.

Les professeurs devront être choisis parmi les éminences et les personnalités intellectuelles scientifiques, sans égard à leur nationalité.

III. Création dans une université de chacun des Etats Membres de la Société des Nations, d'un degré d'enseignement supérieur dans les facultés et cours de hautes études, dont les diplômes confèreraient l'aptitude nécessaire dans les différents Etats, pour l'exercice de professions. Le minimum d'enseignement devra être le même dans les différents Etats.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Validity in all States, on a Basis of Reciprocity, of certain Secondary Education Diplomas;
Establishment of an International University; Institution of a Higher Education Degree
in all Countries Members of the League of Nations, such Diplomas being Valid for
all the Countries in Question.

LETTER FROM M. QUINONES DE LEÓN,

SPANISH REPRESENTATIVE ON THE COUNCIL OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS, TO THE
SECRETARY-GENERAL OF THE LEAGUE.

PARIS, July 30th, 1923.

I have received instructions from my Government to request you to take the necessary steps for the insertion in the agenda of the next Assembly of the proposals which are given in the attached text. These proposals refer to the validity in all States, on a basis of reciprocity, of certain secondary education diplomas and to the establishment of an international university and to the institution of a higher education degree in all countries Members of the League of Nations, such diplomas being valid for all the countries in question.

Proposals of the Spanish Government.

I. A secondary education diploma which, while not entitling the holder to exercise a profession, will be valid in all the various countries and will enable him to attend courses of higher instruction there.

II. The establishment at one of the four great Universities of Christendom — Paris, Salamanca, Oxford or Bologna — of a self-governing International University possessing full academic rights and privileges with power to confer degrees and give diplomas which will be recognised in all the States Members of the League of Nations.

The professors should be selected from among the leading intellectual and scientific authorities, irrespective of their nationality.

III. The institution at one university in each of the States Members of the League of Nations of a higher education degree in the faculties and courses of advanced studies, the possession of such diplomas to qualify the holder to exercise a profession in the various States. A minimum standard of instruction would have to be laid down for all the various countries.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Geneva,
August 15th, 1923.

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

Second Session, held at Geneva from July 26th to August 2nd, 1923.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

submitted to the Council and the Assembly.

COMPOSITION OF THE COMMITTEE

Members:

M. D. N. BANNERJEA, M. H. BERGSON,	Professor of Political Economy at the University of Calcutta. Honorary Professor of Philosophy at the Collège de France; Member of the French Academy and of the Académie des Sciences morales et politiques; Associate of the Académie royale de Belgique; Corresponding Fellow of the British Academy; Foreign Hon. Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh; Foreign Member of the "Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei", Rome, of the Royal Danish Scientific Society, Copenhagen, and of the Institut national genevois.
Mlle. K. BONNEVIE,	Professor of Zoology at the University of Christiania; Norwegian Delegate at the Assembly of the League of Nations.
M. A. DE CASTRO,	Professor of Clinical Medicine and Director of the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Rio de Janeiro.
Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA,	Professor of Physics at the University of Paris; Honorary Professor of the University of Warsaw; Member of the Paris Académie de Médecine, of the Polish Academy and of the Scientific Society at Warsaw; Foreign Member of the Amsterdam and Stockholm Academies of Sciences.
M. J. DESTRÉE,	Former Minister for Sciences and Arts; Member of the Académie royale de Belgique and of the Académie belge de langue et de littérature françaises.
M. H. A. LORENTZ,	Professor of Theoretical Physics at the University of Leyden; Member of the Amsterdam Academy of Science; Honorary Member of the Vienna Academy of Sciences; Foreign Member of the Royal Society of London and of the "Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei", Rome; Foreign Associate of the Academy of Sciences, Paris, and the National Academy of Sciences at Washington; Secretary-General of the Netherlands Scientific Society, Haarlem.
Mr. R. A. MILLIKAN,	Director of the "Norman Bridge" Laboratory of Physics at the California Institute of Technology; Foreign Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences, Washington; Vice-President of the National Research Council; Member of the International Research Council; Exchange Professor to Belgium.
Mr. G. A. MURRAY,	Professor of Greek at Oxford University; Member of the Council of the British Academy; Delegate of South Africa to the Assembly of the League of Nations; President of the Executive Committee of the League of Nations Union.
M. G. DE REYNOLD,	Professor of French Literature and Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Berne; Vice-President of the Catholic Union for International Studies and of the Swiss Federation of Intellectual Workers.

- M. F. RUFFINI, Professor of Ecclesiastical Law at the University of Turin; Senator; former Minister of Public Education; President of the Royal Academy of Turin; Corresponding Member of the "Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei", Rome; President of the Italian League of Nations Union.
- M. L. DE TORRES QUEVEDO, Director of the Madrid Electro-Mechanical Laboratory; Member of the "Junta para Ampliación de Estudios"; Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Madrid.

At this session of the Committee, Mme. Curie-Skłodowska was unable to be present owing to illness; M. Destrée was replaced during the first three days by M. H. LAFONTAINE, Vice-President of the Belgian Senate, Secretary-General of the Union of International Associations; Dr. Millikan was replaced throughout the session by Dr. J. H. WIGMORE, Dean of the Faculty of Law at the North-Western University, Chicago, Commissioner for the Unification of State Laws in the United States, assisted by Capt. P. PÉRIGORD, Professor of Political Economy at the California Institute of Technology, Lecturer at the California State University; Prof. Murray was also replaced throughout the session by Mr. G. LOWES DICKINSON, Fellow and Lecturer of King's College, Cambridge.

Austrian Correspondent:

- M. A. DOPSCH, Professor of General History and former Rector of the University of Vienna; Member of the Vienna Academy of Sciences.

Experts:

- M. G. CASTELLA, Professor of Swiss History and General History at the University of Friburg.
- M. J. LUCHAIRE, Honorary Professor of the University of Grenoble; Inspector-General of Public Education in France.
- M. H. REVERDIN, Professor of Philosophy at the University of Geneva.

Representative of the Secretary-General of the League of Nations:

- M. I. NITOBÉ, Professor of Colonial History at the University of Tokio; Under-Secretary-General of the League of Nations, and Director of the Section of International Bureaux.

Representative of the International Labour Office:

- M. W. MARTIN, Privat-Docent at the University of Geneva; Technical Adviser to the International Labour Office.

Secretary of the Committee and Sub-Committees:

- M. O. DE HALECKI, Professor of Eastern European History and former Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Warsaw; Member of Section at the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

COMPOSITION OF SUB-COMMITTEES.

I. Bibliography.

- | | | |
|---------------------------|---|--|
| M. BERGSON, Chairman | } | Members of the Committee. |
| Mme CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA | | |
| M. DESTRÉE | | |
| M. M. GODET, | | |
| Mr. C. T. HAGBERG WRIGHT, | | |
| Mr. J. R. SCHRAMM, | | Director of the Swiss National Library. |
| | | Director of the London Library. |
| | | Member of the American National Research Council, replaced by Mr. J. D. JOHNSTON, Director of the American Library at Paris. |

2. Inter-University Relations.

- M. BERGSON, Chairman.
- M. DE CASTRO.
- M. DESTRÉE.
- Mr. MILLIKAN.
- Mr. MURRAY,
- (replaced at the first two sessions by Mr. H. J. PATON, Fellow and Lecturer of Queen's College, Oxford; and at the third session by Mr. LOWES DICKINSON).

M. DE REYNOLD.

3. Intellectual Property.

- M. BERGSON, Chairman.
- M. DESTRÉE.
- Mr. MILLIKAN.
- M. RUFFINI.
- M. DE TORRES QUEVEDO.

I. AGENDA AND PROGRAMME OF WORK.

On meeting for the second time, on July 26th, at Geneva, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation was confronted with a particularly heavy agenda owing to the great and immediate development of its activities during the first year of its existence. The following were the principal items of its programme :

- (1) Enquiry into the conditions of intellectual work and the question of affording assistance to countries in which this work is in danger.
- (2) Reports of the Sub-Committees.
- (3) Questions referred to the Committee by the Third Assembly.
- (4) Administrative questions, and continuation of the work of the Committee.

These headings will be used to designate the various chapters of the present report.

II. ENQUIRY INTO THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK AND THE QUESTION OF AFFORDING ASSISTANCE TO COUNTRIES IN WHICH THIS WORK IS IN DANGER.

It will be remembered that at the second meeting of its first session the Committee decided to institute a general enquiry into the conditions of intellectual life in various countries. The aim of this enquiry was twofold : first, in order to improve the organisation of intellectual co-operation, it was desired to make an inventory of the means available and the forces upon which reliance might be placed, and, secondly, to determine at what level intellectual life had been maintained since the war, what were the dangers which threatened it, the evils by which it was affected, and the obstacles which hindered its development.

The enquiry, which was approved by the Assembly and the Council, was conducted as follows :

The Committee appointed as its investigators its Member and Rapporteur, Professor de Reynold; its Secretary, Professor de Halecki; M. Julien Luchaire, Inspector-General of Public Education in France; M. H. Reverdin, Professor at the University of Geneva; and M. Gaston Castella, Professor at the University of Friburg. The International Labour Office was good enough to place Mr. William Martin, Technical Adviser, at the disposal of the Committee to carry out supplementary enquiries regarding various categories of intellectual workers. Other members of the Committee, *viz.* Mlle. Bonnevie, Dr. Millikan, Dr. de Castro, and Dr. Nitobe, Under-Secretary-General of the League of Nations, agreed to assist in conducting this lengthy investigation. The investigators divided the work between them, and each took one group of countries. One took Latin Europe, another Germanic Europe, a third the Balkan countries and the new nations of Central and Eastern Europe, while a fourth took the United States. The enquiry is now beginning to extend to South America. The British Empire and Asia are not being neglected, but they will form what may be styled the second stage of the enquiry.

The enquiry is being conducted on the following lines: Four questionnaires have been drawn up and sent, one to the Governments¹, through official channels, another to the universities and higher schools, a third to academies and learned societies, and the fourth to specialists. But the investigators, and the institutions and individuals to whom these questionnaires are addressed, are naturally left the greatest possible freedom as regards their use. Similarly, the greatest latitude is allowed in respect of the choice of subjects and the way in which these are treated. There can obviously be no question of obtaining complete and definite results, nor of giving all details concerning intellectual life in all countries; it is rather the most characteristic aspects of such life—which are often the least known—of its conditions and needs which will be studied. As it is difficult for the investigators to conduct their researches on the spot, and they have consequently been obliged, as a rule, to collect their data by correspondence, they make use of intermediaries such as scientific institutions or specially qualified persons. Among the latter, particular mention should be made of Professor A. Dopsch, of the University of Vienna. Having been appointed correspondent to the Committee, this eminent historian has compiled a very complete and admirable work on the state of intellectual life in Austria, for which we wish to express our most hearty thanks².

Professor Dopsch, however, is by no means the only collaborator of whom mention might be made. The Committee has already succeeded in interesting in its enquiry an ever-increasing number of literary and scientific experts and scientific institutions. Such a result is so valuable

¹ Up to the present, the following Governments have replied to this questionnaire :

Belgium	India	South Africa
Bulgaria	Netherlands	United States (unofficial reply from
Danzig (transmitted by the Polish Government)	New Zealand	the Commissioner of Education).
Hungary	Republic of San Domingo	

Chile, Guatemala and Mexico have stated that their reply is on its way.

² Encouraged by this first experiment, the Committee proposes very shortly to appoint correspondents in Latin America and Canada.

for the work carried out by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and for the League of Nations as a whole that it would in itself be sufficient fully to justify the enquiry.

But this is not the only result which we have achieved. In spite of the obvious inadequacy of the means at the disposal of the Committee, about thirty reports on most varied subjects and on widely different countries have been completed and will be published shortly. A sub-committee has been appointed to settle the technical details connected with its publication and with any other publications which it may have to undertake. At least twice this number of reports is in preparation. It is already possible to draw provisional conclusions from these documents concerning the present conditions of intellectual life, and we should hasten to state that they do not invariably confirm the pessimistic forecasts given in certain quarters. It is, however, clear that intellectual life is passing through a very grave crisis and that a serious effort should be made, on behalf of civilisation itself, to prevent that life from losing its strength and to restore it to the place which it should normally occupy in every country and in society as a whole.

The enquiry has once more shown that there are far too many countries in which intellectual life is in danger and perhaps moribund. This state of affairs has been the cause of grave anxiety to the Committee, which is accordingly attempting to furnish assistance as far as its slender means permit. The countries mainly affected are those in which the exchange is seriously depreciated. In these countries, intellectual work and workers are struggling against almost insuperable economic obstacles. Ever-increasing difficulty is experienced in obtaining books and even the most simple and necessary instruments. The war period has left great gaps in the libraries; clinics and laboratories find it extremely difficult to continue their work; professors are in want or in distress; students are forced to earn their living by strenuous manual labour in order to be able to continue their studies. We admit that some consolation may be drawn from the fact that organisations are everywhere springing up to assist in the struggle against unfavourable, and often tragic, working conditions. A most praiseworthy will to live is being manifested, particularly in countries which have recently been liberated. But it is impossible for these countries to pass without outside assistance through this intellectual crisis, which is a result of the economic crisis.

It has therefore become a necessity to provide assistance to countries in which intellectual life is in danger. This is the first practical conclusion given by the enquiry. The Committee, and doubtless the whole League of Nations, considers this to be a duty. We note that such assistance is being organised in a quite spontaneous and natural way by national Committees on Intellectual Co-operation.

Committees of this nature have sprung into existence almost automatically in Austria, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Esthonia, Finland, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, Roumania, and the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. They were formed not only to furnish the League's Committee with replies to the enquiry but also to transmit to it the more urgent requests of savants and scientific institutions, particularly as regards books, periodicals and instruments. These Committees have not all been constituted in the same manner; sometimes, as in Austria, they are bodies representing the principal scientific institutions and associations; sometimes they are existing foundations, as in Poland; and sometimes they are formed by an academy, as in Roumania, or by a university, as that of Kovno in Lithuania. Full details concerning these national Committees are given in Annex 1.

The starting-point of the movement was the appeal which we sent out after our first session to all universities, academies, and learned societies on behalf of intellectual work and workers in Austria. This appeal did not, it is true, produce very considerable results, but the replies received brought the Committee into touch with a certain number of national institutions the object of which is to encourage scientific exchanges: *e.g.* the Universities Library of Central Europe in London; the Institute of International Education, established by the Carnegie Endowment in New York; the European Centre of the same Endowment in Paris; the "Junta para Ampliacion de Estudiós" in Madrid, and so on. Somewhat later, the Polish Academy requested the Committee to obtain models of historical publications, and it was possible for some of the members to procure a certain number. Similarly, through the Committee, some French observatories sent their publications to the Observatory at Budapest. It therefore seemed to have been proved that it was both necessary and possible gradually to extend the system of national Committees on Intellectual Co-operation. Indeed, mutual assistance and exchanges will become much easier when committees of this kind exist, not only in countries with depreciated exchanges but also in more-favoured countries. The Committee has therefore resolved to take appropriate action. Its members have already undertaken to form national Committees as soon as possible in Great Britain, France, the Netherlands, Norway, Switzerland, etc. It has, moreover, been decided to convene the delegates of the national Committees which have already been founded to meet the Committee in order to consider what would be the most appropriate methods of organising mutual intellectual assistance in a practical manner. We should add that it has invited the Russian Academic Union, the seat of which is at Prague, to constitute a Committee on Intellectual Co-operation among Russian Emigrants in order that the latter also may obtain the benefits of this co-operation. By its action the Committee desires to show its appreciation of the efforts made by these Russians, in circumstances which are often tragic, to renew their studies and their work on foreign soil and to devote themselves to the education of exiled Russian youth.

The Committee begs to draw the special attention of the Assembly and the Council to the question of these national Committees. It believes that they will provide a means not only of interesting ever-widening intellectual circles in the League of Nations but also and in particular of carrying out effective work with a view to promoting a better mutual understanding between peoples.

III. WORK OF THE SUB-COMMITTEES.

When it convened the Committee for the first time, the Council left it free to draw up its own programme of work. It had, however, laid before it the following three questions: How can intellectual co-operation be organised in the fields of documentation, scientific research, and inter-university relations? After devoting its first meetings to a general consideration of these three problems, the Committee appointed Sub-Committees to examine them in a more detailed and methodical manner and to submit their conclusions to the Committee. We shall now give a summary of the first results of their work:

A. INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATION OF SCIENTIFIC DOCUMENTATION (BIBLIOGRAPHY).

In its first report, the Committee said: "The international organisation for scientific documentation, particularly bibliography, is essential for all intellectual co-operation; scientific relations are very intimately connected with this question. For this reason, the world of science unanimously desires that such an organisation may be established as soon as possible."

The Committee appointed a Sub-Committee on Bibliography, composed of some of its own members together with experts, to study this problem, which is primarily of a technical character. The Sub-Committee held three meetings: in Paris on December 20th and 21st, 1922, M. Bergson in the Chair; at Brussels from March 19th to 21st, 1923, M. Destrée in the Chair; and finally at Geneva on July 25th, 1923, M. Bergson in the Chair. On July 27th it submitted a general report to the plenary Committee, which discussed and approved the report on July 28th.

At its first session, the Committee had drawn a distinction between *retrospective bibliography*, which gives, in relation to a science or one particular subject, a list of all publications connected therewith, starting from a definite date and working backwards, and *periodical bibliography*, which aims at giving rapid information by keeping scientists informed at regular intervals of new publications and new discoveries. The Committee recognised that the improvement of the latter form of bibliography was specially urgent. Accordingly, the Sub-Committee devoted its work primarily to periodical bibliography and its improvement.

It obtained assistance from specialists—scientists and bibliographers. It also took the opinions of scientific groups and institutes, and in particular those of the International Research Council, the International Academic Union and the International Bibliographical Institute at Brussels.

As regards periodical bibliography, the attention of the Sub-Committee was chiefly directed towards the rapid and regular exchange of scientific information in the form of very brief analyses (systems of *abstracts* or *analytical bibliography*), such an exchange being one of the first conditions of scientific progress.

The following is a summary of the guiding principles laid down for the Sub-Committee by Mme. Curie-Skłodowska, describing the problem of analytical bibliography and the solutions which may be found:

The number of publications is continually increasing. It is therefore becoming a matter of increasing difficulty for scholars and scientists to procure and consult them all, and they are obliged to an increasing extent to make use of brief abstracts. But abstract journals have, in their turn, become exceedingly numerous. The result is that each of these collections is incomplete, even when it deals with only one special subject, and it is impossible for anyone seeking information to obtain sufficient documentary reference, even by consulting a number of collections. Furthermore, while many publications remain unanalysed, or at all events are not mentioned in the principal collections, abstracts of many others are given in several places; this results in overlapping and waste of time, which should be avoided by better co-ordination in each branch of knowledge.

After hearing the Sub-Committee's report, the Plenary Committee authorised it to make arrangements for special conferences with a view to a first attempt to secure co-ordination in abstract bibliography. Such an attempt might be made forthwith in the sphere of *physics*, *philology* and the *social sciences*. The procedure would be to arrange that, in each country and for each group of sciences, national bodies—if possible affiliated to international bodies—should prepare abstracts in a language which is widely known in addition to abstracts in the national language of each body. All abstracts relating to a single science should, if possible, be grouped in a single publication for each country or group of countries. The ideal solution would be a single publication for each science. In addition to the publications, the abstracts should be printed and pasted on cards so as to facilitate the centralisation, consultation and exchange of them. It would be possible to ensure, by international agreement, that the authors of scientific articles and the publishers of scientific reviews should preface every article with an abstract, ready for pasting on a card. This is the system, and it will no doubt be possible gradually to carry it into effect and to extend its use.

Besides analytical bibliography, however, there is the "*title bibliography*", which can hardly be neglected, as it is much easier, is essential to all documentary reference, and may even be sufficient for certain special subjects. In this connection the most urgent necessity is to establish a *universal bibliographical catalogue*. This catalogue would form a supplement to the national joint catalogues, some of which already exist, while the Committee recommends that others should be established in those countries which do not yet possess them. In this catalogue, the cards would be classified according to authors' names, in alphabetical order, which is the simplest method. A catalogue of this nature is now being prepared by the International Bibliographical

Institute at Brussels; the Sub-Committee therefore recommended that the work of compiling this alphabetical catalogue should be continued by the Institute under the patronage of the League of Nations, with the assistance of all competent bodies. The Institute would thus become the sole international centre for title bibliography. The Sub-Committee considered itself fully authorised to make this recommendation, since it is identical with the resolution adopted by the International Congress of Librarians and Bibliophiles held at Paris in April 1923. It should be added, in this connection, that the Sub-Committee expressed the desire that all national libraries should in future send at least two copies of their catalogues, including supplements, to the Brussels Institute. The Committee approved the Sub-Committee's recommendation and accordingly requests permission to investigate the question.

At its first session, the plenary Committee drew the attention of the Council and the Assembly to the two International Conventions concluded at Brussels on March 15th, 1886, which deal with the *international exchange of official scientific and literary publications*. It noted that many States had not adhered to these Conventions, that the Conventions themselves no longer corresponded to present requirements, and that it would consequently be desirable to revise them. The League of Nations has invited the non-signatory States to adhere to the Brussels Conventions¹. At the same time, the Sub-Committee requested the national exchange bureaux to state their views and to furnish information as to their methods of work. The results of these preliminary investigations show that the time has now arrived to convene a new conference. The Committee is of opinion that the initiative in this matter should be taken by the League of Nations itself. The League of Nations might summon a meeting of experts (particularly the directors of national exchange bureaux) with instructions to draw up a scheme which, when adopted by the League, would be submitted to the various Governments for ratification.

The annual publication of an *Index Bibliographicus* would be of great assistance in the matter of scientific documentation. This Index, which would render services similar to those rendered by the "Minerva" in the case of universities, was suggested by M. Marcel Godet, Director of the National Library at Berne. It would contain a list of existing bibliographical periodicals and institutions. The Sub-Committee unanimously recognised that it was desirable and even urgently necessary to publish an index of this description, and decided to begin the preliminary work immediately, by requesting the National Library or other competent institutions of each country to supply cards giving the required names and addresses for that country. These particulars, after being compiled and co-ordinated by the Secretariat of the Committee, would be collected in a small volume, which would, it appears, prove very welcome. The Index, therefore, will shortly appear among our publications and will represent at least a partial solution, at small expense, of the problem of bibliographical co-ordination.

Another partial solution is given by the *Information Bureaux* which are attached to certain great libraries, such as those of Berlin and Vienna. The Committee unanimously recommends the creation of similar bureaux in other countries, as they would be of great utility. Their work would not necessarily be confined to giving information on bibliographical questions; they might also collect the addresses of scholars, scientists and scientific institutions, compile general catalogues for the various countries, publish year-books, and so forth. Subsequently, a central office might also be established to maintain communication between these national bureaux.

Documentary reference and the exchange of information would also be considerably facilitated, particularly during the present unsettled period, by *exempting from Customs duty* all books lent by one library to another. The Committee ventures to draw the attention of the League of Nations to this point.

Other more ambitious and more remote schemes were also discussed, such as the establishment of one or more international libraries. It was, however, recognised, first, that such libraries could never be absolutely complete and should be limited to the collection of certain classes of publications, particularly periodicals; and, in the second place, in view of the present situation, they would be too expensive to be practicable. It would therefore be preferable to take no action beyond making use of present facilities and establishing co-ordination between libraries which already exist by rendering the exchange of publications a regular process. The text of a resolution on this point is included in Annex 2 to this report.

Finally, one member of the Committee drew the attention of his colleagues to the *International Catalogue of Scientific Literature*, published under the direction of the Royal Society (London). Publication of this catalogue has had to be discontinued, but the whole of the organisation on which it was based remains in existence, particularly the regional bureaux; and a great service would be rendered to science if this organisation were provided with the means of resuming its work. The Committee has not yet considered the question of publishing an *international scientific review*, although it is an admirable idea, particularly from the point of view of scientists in countries with a low exchange and of those whose languages are not widely known.

It will be seen that all the work of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography and the Committee itself is directed not towards outlining extensive general schemes but towards utilising and co-ordinating existing material as simply, practically and, above all, as inexpensively as possible, with a view to promoting the rapid exchange of scientific information. The Committee has therefore endeavoured to suggest, not so much fresh undertakings, as improvements which could readily be secured.

All these bibliographical questions will doubtless be found to be extremely difficult and of a specialised nature, but books and other publications constitute one of the vital factors of modern

¹ Up to the present, Hungary and the Republic of San Domingo have adhered. Roumania proposes to adhere, and several other States are considering the possibility of similar action.

civilisation, and any improvement in the organisation for exchanging them is a step on the way to reconstruction, order and peace.

B. CO-OPERATION IN SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH: PROTECTION OF SCIENTIFIC DISCOVERIES; ARCHÆOLOGICAL EXCAVATIONS.

In its first report, the Committee maintained that co-operation in scientific research should be organised by scientists themselves. The Committee can do nothing more than avail itself of every opportunity to facilitate such co-operation and research.

The most valuable assistance which can be given to science and scientists consists in the protection of scientific property and discoveries. It is utterly unfair that, at the present stage of civilisation, the inventor of a new kind of rubber heel — could there be anything more commonplace? — should be able to become a wealthy man by taking out a patent, while the scientist possesses no means of protecting a discovery destined to be of incalculable value, perhaps for centuries, to all mankind. Moreover, pure science is passing through a serious crisis, due, in every country, to the war. It must be realised that science no longer provides the scientist with a living; and consequently young men are showing less and less inclination to undertake disinterested research; they prefer to enter more lucrative careers. Indeed, we may ask with apprehension where recruits will be found to take the place of the present generation of scientists.

Realising the injustice and the danger of this situation, the Committee appointed a Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property, which held two meetings—one at Paris on December 18th and 19th, 1922, and one at Geneva on July 23rd 1923. M. Bergson presided on both occasions. Like the Bibliographical Sub-Committee, the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property consulted a number of experts. The result of its work is embodied in a report by Senator Ruffini containing a scheme for a "Union for the Protection of Authors' Rights over Scientific Discoveries or Inventions".

The following is a summary of this report; its author begins by stating the problem, and proceeds to describe his method, which is to be based not on theory but on facts. He attempts to define scientific discovery as lying midway between artistic creation and technical invention, both of which are protected, the former by copyright and the latter by patents. He then lays down the procedure to be followed in order to secure effective protection for scientific discoveries. Finally, he concludes in favour of a special union, on the same footing as the two unions now in existence for the protection of literary and artistic property and of industrial property respectively; like these latter, it would have its administrative centre at the Berne Bureaux, the eminent Director of which, Professor Röthlisberger, attended the last meeting of the Sub-Committee, which can count upon his future support. Professor Röthlisberger stated that the scepticism and opposition which were at first aroused by the very idea of protecting scientific discoveries were now gradually disappearing.

The Committee agrees with the opinion expressed in the Ruffini scheme, that it is for the League of Nations to propose an international convention, which would be concluded under its auspices and would lead to the formation of an International Union for the Protection of Scientific Property, as proposed. This would be a most important step and would undoubtedly remedy the serious crisis through which science is now passing; its realisation would form an important epoch in the history of science.

* * *

In its first report, the Committee indicated another sphere in which international regulation might very considerably assist scientific research: namely, the sphere of archæological excavations. The Committee pointed out that far too many documents of the utmost value are still buried underground and exposed to destruction or gradual disintegration or to damage by ignorant prospectors. The International Academic Union has already considered the question at its Brussels session in May 1922; the Committee proposes to open negotiations with the Union and with the Mandates Committee, in view of the fact that it would be possible to conclude a convention forthwith regarding excavations in mandated countries or countries on a similar footing. There will thus be a most valuable co-operation between these two organs of the League of Nations.

C. INTER-UNIVERSITY RELATIONS ¹.

In considering international co-operation between universities at its earlier meetings, the Committee confined itself to laying down certain very general principles. It began by recognising that such co-operation, difficult as it may be to establish, will meet a widely felt need, that the League of Nations is specially qualified to take a lead in this direction, and that, so doing, it would be acting in accordance with the principles and objects for which it was formed.

The Committee then defined the spirit which should animate this effort for inter-university co-operation; it considered that it was necessary to improve higher education, to seek to perfect the quality of study, to stimulate pure scientific work, to increase general learning with a view to combating an excess of specialisation and professionalism, and, lastly, to maintain or to re-establish contact between the aristocracy of intellect and the masses. As regards

¹ The Committee uses the word "university" in its widest sense, as applied to all official or independent higher educational establishments.

inter-university relations, the Committee considered them in their three most important aspects: the exchange of professors, the exchange of students, and the equivalent recognition of studies and results (diplomas and degrees).

The University Sub-Committee made further progress in the directions in which the Committee had only begun to move in 1922. It held three sessions: at Paris, M. Bergson in the Chair, on December 22nd and 23rd, 1922; at Brussels, M. Destrée in the Chair, March 22nd to 24th, 1923; and, lastly, at Geneva, M. Bergson in the Chair, on July 24th, 1923. It worked on the same method as the other two sub-committees, by consulting a number of experts selected both from professors and from students' representatives.

The Sub-Committee considered as exhaustively as possible the three aspects of university co-operation referred to above: the exchange of students, the exchange of professors, and equivalence of studies and degrees. It realised that neither exchanges nor recognition of degrees can be internationally regulated, and that Governments and universities must be left to organise these matters as they think best. Accordingly, it limited itself to general considerations and to resolutions of a necessarily theoretical character.

Nevertheless, even on these questions, the Sub-Committee was able to reach certain practical decisions. In the first place, as regards the exchange of professors, it decided to continue its investigation of all experiments which have so far been carried out in this direction; the enquiry, however, is already sufficiently far advanced to permit of the conclusion that financial difficulties constitute the principal obstacle to the exchange of professors. But these difficulties could be easily overcome by establishing a foundation or concluding a university agreement specially designed to meet them. If the League of Nations could not act, such a foundation might be provided by private initiative. The Sub-Committee formulated a recommendation to this effect.

As regards the exchange of students, the Sub-Committee recognised that such exchange could be very largely organised by the students themselves. Accordingly, it entered into communication with the four chief international students' associations: the International Students Federation, the Pax Romana, the World's Student Christian Federation, and the International Federation of University Women. The Sub-Committee interviewed representatives of each of these associations and supplied them with questionnaires. It noted with much satisfaction that these societies were prepared to come to an agreement to secure practical co-operation in their work, to exchange information and to avoid overlapping, and that such agreement would not oblige any of them to alter their programmes or abandon their special objects. Accordingly, the Committee invited the University Sub-Committee to arrange a meeting with the delegates of the four associations in question.

The Sub-Committee also considered the position of students in countries which have been ruined economically. We have already, in connection with intellectual relief, stated how deplorable the situation is in these countries. It has resulted in the complete intellectual isolation of the younger generation of a whole section of Europe. This situation constitutes a danger to all countries. In order to reduce it, the Committee suggests an agreement between Governments and universities whereby universities in countries with a depreciated exchange would select their most intellectually gifted students and send them to universities in more favourably situated countries. The latter would receive these students and give them all necessary assistance, particularly in the form of subsidies and scholarships, to enable them to pursue their studies.

With regard to equivalence of degrees, the Committee agreed with the Sub-Committee that an enquiry should be instituted into the position as regards the degrees which are now recognised by the various Governments and universities. Only on the basis of such an enquiry can the Committee continue its study of this particularly complex and difficult problem.

The Committee and the Sub-Committee also considered, and will continue to consider, three other methods of strengthening inter-university relations, namely, the study of modern languages, literatures and civilisations; a scheme for the organisation of university courses on the ideas, interests and needs of modern nations; and, lastly, international vacation courses. The resolutions adopted on each of these three questions are given in Annex 2. In connection with vacation courses, however, it should be pointed out that the Committee does not wish to encourage oratorical disputations on international subjects, but rather to promote a combination of practical and scientific education with the study of certain international questions, on the lines which have been followed for the last few years at several university towns in Europe and America. The Committee hopes that similar courses will be organised by other universities and that the League of Nations will interest itself in them.

But the scheme to which the Committee and the Sub-Committee attach the highest importance, and which they hope to see carried into effect as soon as possible, is that of an *International University Information Office*.

The universities themselves have been wanting such an office for a long time — even before the war. It therefore indubitably represents a genuine need. In point of fact, the universities — even, in many cases, the universities in one country — have no adequate information regarding one another, and this state of affairs has led to the foundation of national information offices in France, Switzerland, Germany, the British Empire and the United States. This lack of information constitutes an obstacle to exchanges of all kinds, but in particular to the exchange of students. The plenary Committee considered the formation of such an international office at its first session, and the Sub-Committee investigated the matter. Two schemes have since been put forward — one by Professor Bannerjea, the other by Professor de Reynold, with the assistance of M. E. de Waldkirch, Director of the Swiss University Office at Berne. The Committee adopted the programme of organisation and work contained in this latter scheme and reduced it to extremely modest dimensions; it is given in Annex 2.

In theory, an International University Information Office could be founded either by the League of Nations or by the universities themselves. In practice, the former is the only possible solution. The systems on which universities are organised vary too much to permit of any agreement among them as to the foundation of an establishment of this kind. The majority of them are under Government control and have no financial autonomy. Government consent would therefore have to be obtained before an inter-university agreement could be concluded ; and it would be difficult to secure such an agreement at the present time, in view of the political situation, quite apart from the existence of federal countries such as the United States, where many of the higher educational establishments are independent, and Switzerland, where the universities are under the Cantonal Governments and not under the Federal Government. Moreover, it is well known that universities tend to an extreme individualism ; to induce them to agree upon a common scheme would therefore be a very complicated problem, and any such agreement would run the risk of being accepted by only a few. Accordingly, the first step in the matter should be taken by the League of Nations.

The Office, as we conceive it, would be extremely simple and inexpensive ; it would be established at the Secretariat of the League of Nations¹ ; and in order to establish the necessary connection with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, the Bureau might be attached to the Secretariat of the Committee. Its name and its programme of work constitute a clear indication of its object, which is to give information, to render services, and to promote inter-university relations. Its proposed organisation is such that neither universities nor Governments need apprehend any interference on its part in their internal administration.

The Committee is of opinion that, without such an office, it will never be possible to escape from the domain of theory and to secure international co-operation between universities in all its forms. But it believes that the creation of such an office would enable it to obtain the maximum of positive results with the minimum of financial resources.

IV. QUESTIONS REFERRED TO THE COMMITTEE BY THE THIRD ASSEMBLY.

The Third Assembly was good enough to refer the question of an auxiliary language to the Committee in order that it might examine it and express a preliminary opinion. At its meeting of September 21st, 1922, the Third Assembly adopted the following resolution:

“The question relating to the teaching of Esperanto shall be referred to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in order that that Committee may give its opinion on the various aspects of the problem of an auxiliary international language.”

The Committee devoted more than two meetings to this problem and arrived at the conclusion that it was unable to recommend to the League of Nations any artificial language. The Committee does not question the practical advantages which would accrue from the universal adoption of an artificial auxiliary language, but it considers that all its efforts should be concentrated on spreading a knowledge of living languages and modern literatures, which in its opinion constitute the most powerful means of bringing nations together and producing a mutual understanding among them—in short, of realising the ideals of the League of Nations. All further details which may be required will be found in the minutes of the meetings which the Committee devoted to a discussion of the problem of artificial languages in all its aspects.

During the discussion of the Committee's first report by the Second Committee of the Third Assembly, the Chinese delegate, Dr. Tcheou-Wei, proposed that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should collaborate with the International Congress on Moral Education, which sat at Geneva from July 21st to August 1st, 1922. The Committee unanimously decided that it could not follow this course. It expresses its appreciation of the aims of the Congress and of the ideals by which it is inspired, but considers that moral education does not come within the range of its own activities. It does not, moreover, at present entertain any relations with any congress, but if such relations are established they should be established in the first instance with scientific congresses.

Finally, the Committee took note of a proposal submitted by M. Munch, delegate of Denmark to the Third Assembly, which was, as a matter of fact, connected with the question of international scientific congresses and of the discussion to which this proposal gave rise. One of its members, who is also a delegate at the Assembly, expressed the opinion that the Assembly had referred this recommendation to our Committee simply in order that the Committee should take note of it. The Committee, in order to close the discussion, which could lead to no practical result, decided to accept this interpretation, to regard the recommendation as having been transmitted to it for information only, and to limit its action to acknowledging its receipt to the Assembly.

V. ADMINISTRATIVE QUESTIONS, CONTINUATION OF THE COMMITTEE'S WORK.

Regarding administrative questions, the Committee unanimously and formally expressed the hope that Professor O. de Halecki would continue to afford the Committee his valuable

¹ The Brussels University Foundation has informed the League of Nations that it would place rent-free at the League's disposal, premises for the information office.

assistance. Up to the present, M. de Halecki has been the Committee's secretary, and it is he who, with Dr. Nitobe, Under-Secretary-General of the League of Nations, has prepared all its work with such competence and zeal. The Committee is glad to avail itself of this opportunity to thank him publicly, and it sincerely hopes that Professor Halecki will henceforth be permanently attached to the Committee.

The Committee has drawn up the main lines of its programme of work for the next year. Although it has decided not to burden to any greater extent a programme which is already very full, it has made provision for the fact that new questions may arise for its consideration, problems, for instance, such as those referred to by the representative of the *International Confederation of Intellectual Workers*, M. Gallié, concerning the interests and rights of such workers, particularly of writers and artists. The Committee will have to pay greater attention in the future to international problems connected with art and artists, in the widest sense of these two terms, for art is destined to contribute quite as much as science to bringing about a mutual understanding and establishing fraternity among peoples. But the Committee will, before attempting anything else, attempt, as far as the means placed at its disposal allow, to realise the positive schemes which have been set out in this report. This leads us to our conclusion:

After one year's existence, the Committee may, without false modesty, maintain that its existence has been justified; first, by the amount of work which it has accomplished, and, secondly, by the fact that it has obtained a relatively considerable number of positive results in a comparatively short space of time. And yet, when it first came to consider the task before it, it wondered—and many others wondered and are still wondering—whether it could ever accomplish its mission; for the field of intellectual life is so vast that it appears to be limitless.

If the Committee has been able to map out its course and make some progress already, it is because all its members have displayed great willingness, have worked disinterestedly, have always preserved a spirit of good-will, and have been animated by a sense of their duty to the League of Nations and to mankind. But these results are also due to the practical spirit and the wisdom which they have shown and the thoroughly scientific methods which they have always applied when dealing with every question submitted to them. They have attempted never to lose touch with reality and possibility and never to exceed their powers. They have thus made many friendships which may, perhaps, prove of use to others besides themselves. Convinced as they are of the importance of their mission, they have spared neither time nor efforts; they have worked to the limit of their capacity, sometimes to the detriment of their own individual research work. They have been sustained by the idea that their efforts will not have been made in vain, and that the League of Nations, which invited them to study certain great problems, will provide them, in cases in which solutions have been proposed, with the necessary means for putting these solutions into effect.

(Signed) H. BERGSON (*Chairman*).
G. DE REYNOLD (*Rapporteur*).

ANNEX 1

NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

1. AUSTRIA.

On the initiative of Professor A. Dopsch, the Austrian correspondent of the Committee, a national Committee was formed under his chairmanship; it is composed of representatives of the Academy of Sciences (Prof. Wettstein), the Austrian League of Nations Union (Prof. Walker), the Federation of Intellectual Workers (Prof. Sperl), the Vienna University (Prof. Durig), the Technical College (Prof. Artmann), the Academy of Fine Arts (Prof. Schmutzer), the Academy of Music (Director Marx), the National Library, which is the organ for the interchange of publications (Director Bick), the large museums and collections (Dr. Löhr) and the School of Industrial Art (Director Roller). This Committee held its first meeting on April 28th, 1923.

2. BULGARIA.

The University of Sofia established, in March 1923, a national Committee under the chairmanship of M. Caraoglanoff, Rector of the University. It is composed of representatives of the Senate of the University and of the Bulgarian Academy of Sciences.

3. ESTHONIA.

In a letter from its Rector, Professor Kovvel, dated December 12th, 1922, the University of Dorpat declared its readiness to undertake on behalf of Esthonia the duties outlined in the resolutions of the Council of the League of Nations.

4. FINLAND.

In April 1923 a "delegation" (national Committee) was set up composed of representatives of the Society of Sciences (Professors U. L. Lindelöf, C. Tigerstedt and A. Wallensköld, of the University of Helsingfors) and of the Finnish Academy of Sciences at Helsingfors.

5. GREECE.

The Rector of Athens University formed, in April 1923, a permanent committee, composed of Professors S. Menardos, G. Remoundos and Ch. Tsoundras for the purpose of collaborating with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. It has got into touch with all the institutions concerned in Greece.

6. HUNGARY.

Under the auspices of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, a National Committee was set up on December 18th, 1922, under the chairmanship of M. A. de Berzeviczy, former Minister, President of the Academy, and with M. E. de Balogh, former Minister, Secretary-General of the Academy, as Rapporteur.

It is composed of eleven members of the Academy, including the Librarian, and of representatives of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Education, the Committee for the Promotion of the Work of Hungarian Universities (Professor E. de Grósz), the Hungarian League of Nations Union and the Inspector-General of Museums and Libraries.

7. LATVIA.

The Committee is negotiating with the University of Riga.

8. LITHUANIA.

The University of Kovno set up in May 1922 a National Committee composed of the representatives of the six faculties of the University, *i.e.* Professors V. Čepinskis (science), Chairman of the Committee, E. Balogh (law), Secretary of the Committee, S. Šalkauskas (theology), A. Jurgeliunas (medicine), M. Biržiška (art and letters) and K. Vasiliauskas (technical sciences).

9. POLAND.

In accordance with Mme. Curie-Skłodowska's proposal, the Mianowski Foundation (for the promotion of scientific research) at Warsaw (Professor K. Lutostański, President) serves as a link between Poland and the Committee; all the competent institutions in that country are represented on the Scientific Board of the Foundation. In January 1923, its Committee set up a "League of Nations Commission" to deal with questions of intellectual co-operation and composed of Professors Fr. Czubalski, L. Szperl and J. Ujejski. It works in close collaboration, as regards these questions, with the Polish Academy of Sciences and Letters and also with a special committee set up by the Union of Polish Scientific Societies and the Society of Sciences and Letters of Lwów (Lemberg) (Professor W. Abraham, President).

10. ROUMANIA.

The Roumanian Academy set up a national Committee, including representatives of the principal scientific institutions, for the purpose of permanently keeping in touch with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

11. KINGDOM OF THE SERBS, CROATS AND SLOVENES.

Thanks to the efforts of Professor J. Cvijić, President of the Serbian Royal Academy, the Government set up, in March 1923, a national Committee under the chairmanship of M. N. Vulić, Professor at the University of Belgrade and representative of the Academy.

12. CZECHOSLOVAKIA.

The Czech Academy of Sciences has set up a national Committee to collaborate with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. Professor J. Zubatý, President of the Academy and former Rector of Charles University, is its Chairman. It is composed of 16 members, of whom eight are representatives of the Academy, four of the Czech Society of Sciences, and four of the Masaryk Academy of Labour at Prague, with an Executive Committee composed of four members: Professors Zubatý, Bašta, Posejpal and Šusta. The latter, a former Minister of Public Education, is in charge of the administration of current business and has appointed a permanent secretary, Dr. J. Váňa.

ANNEX 2.

TEXT OF RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE COMMITTEE.

A. RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE PLENARY COMMITTEE.

I. *Organisation of Assistance for Nations whose Intellectual Life is specially Endangered.*

1. The Committee warmly approves the creation of national Committees on Intellectual Co-operation as established in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe and congratulates their

promoters. It regards these committees as the best means of organising intellectual co-operation and promoting exchanges.

2. The Committee decides to extend this organisation not only to countries which have specially suffered as a result of the war but also to those whose intellectual life is in a more favourable situation.

3. The Committee also decides to invite the existing national committees and any which may in future be established to appoint delegates to consult with the Committee with a view to examining the most suitable methods of mutual assistance with regard to intellectual work.

4. The Committee requests the Council to invite Governments Members of the League of Nations to give their moral and financial support to the work of these national Committees.

5. The Committee requests the Council to authorise it to receive funds from any institution or individual interested in its efforts which would be placed at the disposal of these national Committees.

6. The Committee requests the experts entrusted with the investigation of the condition of intellectual life in countries where it is specially endangered to pursue their enquiries with a view to submitting a report on the most urgent requirements of those countries.

II. *Organisation of Relief for the Intellectuals among the Russian Emigrants.*

1. The Committee decides to establish relations with the Office of the Russian Academic Union at Prague and to invite it to set up or to become a "Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of Russian Emigrants", similar to those which have already been formed in most of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. The intellectuals among the Russian emigrants will thus enjoy the advantages which the co-operative system will undoubtedly offer as soon as it is universally organised.

2. The Committee decides to appoint as its correspondent or expert a Russian scientist, to be selected from those whose qualifications are highest and whose material position is specially precarious.

3. The Committee decides to ask the Russian Academic Union to submit a detailed report on the distribution of Russian students in universities and high schools with a view to deciding whether it would not be possible to distribute them in a more suitable manner among higher educational establishments. Many of these establishments contain few or no Russian students, though they would be perfectly well able to accept them, while certain others have perhaps too many.

4. The Committee asks the Council to consider whether the League of Nations could issue to Russian scientists a letter of recommendation to assist them in carrying out visa formalities and obtaining passports in order to enable them to pursue their studies or to carry on research abroad. These scientists should be recommended to the League of Nations by the Office of the Russian Academic Union, which would furnish the League with all necessary particulars as to their identity, their work, the scientific purpose and duration of their travels, etc.

III. *Archæological Research.*

The Committee approves the conclusions of M. Ruffini's report and decides:

1. To submit to the International Academic Union all questions of technical and scientific character in regard to archæological research, to the conservation of monuments and to the publication of the results of this research work.

2. To transmit to the Council of the League the resolutions adopted by the Committee of the International Academic Union with regard to the control of antiquities in mandated or similar areas, and to request it to communicate these resolutions to the Permanent Mandates Committee.

3. To request the Italian Government to take the initiative of an international regulation in regard to the conservation and transfer of archæological monuments, and to draft a scheme for an eventual agreement on that subject.

IV. *Relations with International Scientific Associations.*

The Committee, in virtue of the mission entrusted to it by the League of Nations, declares once again that it is prepared to associate itself with all serious scientific work. Repeating the terms which it used in its first report, it "is following, and will continue to follow, with close attention and sympathy, the development of international organisations such as the International Research Council or the International Academic Union, whose activities include or are capable of including the entire field of science".

These relations might, for instance, be established by means of an exchange of information and publications pending other opportunities for collaboration in connection with any specific scientific problem.

V. *International Language.*

The Committee, having examined the various aspects of the problem of an auxiliary international language, does not feel justified in recommending an artificial language to the consideration of the Assembly of the League of Nations.

It does not dispute the practical advantages which would result from the universal adoption of an artificial language. It considers, however, that its efforts should be mainly directed towards promoting the study of modern languages and of foreign literatures, in view of the fact that such study constitutes one of the most effective methods of bringing about a moral and intellectual understanding between men of different nationalities, an understanding which is, indeed, the ideal of the League of Nations.

B. RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE SUB-COMMITTEES AND APPROVED BY THE
PLENARY COMMITTEE

I. *Bibliography.*

1. *International Institute of Bibliography.*

The Committee recommends that, should any of its proposals be adopted, care should be taken that the great pioneer work carried out in international bibliography by the International Institute of Bibliography should be utilised as far as possible.

2. *International Library.*

Whereas the largest libraries of the world are very incomplete in respect of works published in other countries, a situation which is contrary to the interests of science and the progress of a good understanding between the peoples;

And considering that it would be highly desirable to constitute at several points throughout the world the largest possible collections of works printed in all countries to be at the disposal of students of all nations;

And whereas the creation of one or more new libraries of this kind presents at the present moment enormous financial and technical difficulties, and that it is before all essential in this field, as in all others, to make use of existing material and to achieve positive results as rapidly and as economically as possible:

The Committee adopts the following resolution:

(a) States whose territory contains a centre provided with public or private libraries of exceptional importance shall be asked to organise these libraries, if they consider it expedient, or to recommend that they be organised in such a way that all the resources which they contain shall be strictly co-ordinated and rendered easily accessible. This result could be obtained by a methodical division of labour between the libraries in the same town or in the same region, by the specialisation of these libraries, by the constitution of a common catalogue and by the creation of special documentation and information services.

(b) A library of considerable size, general in character and really international, consisting of a single collection or several collections specialising in different fields and connected one with another would thus be constituted (though still incomplete) in each of these centres; and the States would be asked to come to an agreement by which the collections of foreign works in these libraries, or unions of libraries constituted in this way, would be completed by interchange. Agreements would be made which would guarantee to students of all nations free access to these general libraries and every facility for the use of all their resources. After such co-ordination, if the libraries are found to contain duplicates, these could be used in the first place for exchanges and then for international loans and if possible for the increasing of the international libraries already existing.

3. *Abstracts.*

Upon investigating the present position as regards abstracts, the Committee has noted the following facts:

A. — The ever-increasing difficulty of obtaining and consulting all scientific publications is forcing savants to resort more and more frequently to abstracts, from which they choose the works a thorough knowledge of which is really indispensable to them. Consequently, collections of abstracts have become more and more numerous, and the number of abstracts published in each collection is also rapidly increasing.

B. — It is becoming ever more difficult for each separate collection to include a really complete series of abstracts, even in the case of some clearly defined special branch of knowledge, and the individual student is never certain of obtaining sufficient documentation, even if he consults several different collections.

C. — Thus, while a considerable number of works are not "abstracted", or, at any rate, are not included in the collections usually referred to, many others are summarised several times, and the duplication of labour involved, both for the editors and the readers, has become specially noticeable nowadays, when the intellectual world is short of workers, of means to meet the cost of publication and even of time which can be devoted entirely to disinterested research.

In view of these facts and of the results which have already been obtained from experiments in the co-ordination of analytical bibliography carried out by the International Research Council, the Committee makes the following recommendations:

(a) With a view to their ultimate centralisation, abstracts should be prepared in each country by a national organisation affiliated, if possible, to an international organisation in respect of each group of sciences.

(b) Every country should provide abstracts of this nature in some widely spoken language, apart from abstracts in the language of the country concerned.

(c) All abstracts relating to the same branch of science should be grouped as far as possible in one publication for each country or each group of countries, it being clearly understood that it would be desirable eventually to establish one single international publication for each branch of science.

(d) In addition to these publications, the abstracts should be printed or pasted on cards, so as to render them more easy to centralise, consult or exchange.

(e) In order to facilitate the work of compiling abstracts, it would be desirable to arrive at some international agreement with a view to ensuring that authors of articles and editors and publishers of periodicals should publish above the article a short synopsis, and below the article a statement of the conclusions drawn — as is already done in the case of many important periodicals.

(f) An appeal should be addressed to the directors of the leading scientific publications requesting them to divide their publications into separately stitched sections in order that the various sections may obtain a wider and more useful circulation.

The Committee is of opinion that, in order to ensure the practical application of these general principles, in accordance with the particular needs of each branch of science, steps should first of all be taken to convene special conferences, at which representatives of the organisations, particularly scientific periodicals, which at present prepare and publish abstracts for any such particular branch could reach an agreement concerning a common plan of work. The Committee would be represented at each of the conferences.

The Committee decides immediately to take the necessary steps to organise, for example, meetings of three conferences of this nature: one for physics and physical chemistry, one for classical philology, and one for social sciences.

4. *Title Bibliography.*

The Committee, in accordance with the recommendation made by it with regard to the preparation of joint national catalogues, being of opinion that a universal catalogue, which would supplement the national bibliographies, would be of great utility;

That it is not, for the present, advisable to propose a uniform system of classification or to attempt to found a universal bibliography according to subject matter;

That, however, it is possible, by means of an international agreement, to prepare an alphabetical catalogue according to names of authors;

And that it is desirable, in undertaking this work, to use as a basis the results already obtained in this province by a great international institution:

Recommends that the Brussels International Bibliographical Institute should be chosen as the sole international repository for the alphabetical title bibliography, arranged according to the names of authors.

The Committee decides to investigate the manner in which the organisation of this work may be completed under the auspices of the League of Nations in conjunction with the appropriate national and international associations and institutions.

5. *Exchange of Publications.*

The Committee declares that it attaches very great importance to the question of international exchanges, and, in order to achieve a practical solution, it decides to begin by obtaining information of as complete a character as possible on the present working of the various offices and on the improvements which should be made in them.

In order to prepare for a congress, the collection of this information should be entrusted to M. LUCHAIRE, M. BACHA (Director of the Belgian Exchange Service) and M. de HALECKI.

6. *Index Bibliographicus.*

The Committee adopts M. Godet's proposal for the publication of an *Index Bibliographicus* which would give a list of the bibliographical institutions and periodicals in existence in all countries and dealing with all branches of knowledge.

The Committee decides to undertake without delay this work, which, though not considerable, might prove of great value in view of the number of bibliographical bodies and publications and the present lack of co-ordination between them.

The task of collecting the necessary information is entrusted to M. GODET, M. LELAND (Carnegie Institution, Historical Department) and M. de HALECKI.

These gentlemen will at the same time collect details regarding the organisation and work of the information offices now in existence.

7. *Information Offices.*

The Committee, being of opinion that the present economic crisis and the increased cost of books have rendered it more than ever necessary for libraries and men of learning to possess information concerning existing resources and the possibility of mutual assistance:

Recommends that scientific information offices should be established in connection with all national and central libraries on the lines of the offices already in existence, and that such offices should keep in touch, if possible, with the work of preparing joint catalogues for each country.

It would be desirable that the various national organisations should be kept in touch with each other through the intermediary of an international office.

II. *Scientific Property.*

The Committee approves M. Ruffini's report and decides to transmit it to the Council and to the Assembly of the League, with a strong recommendation to adopt the conclusions of this report (see document C. I. C. I. 55/1).

III. *Inter-University Relations.*

I. *Exchange of Professors.*

The Committee,

After hearing the report of M. de Reynold and the communication made by M. de Castro:

Is of opinion that the exchange of professors between universities of different countries would undoubtedly be of benefit to the progress of science and the aims pursued by the League of Nations;

While not under-estimating the difficulties which this exchange would involve and the care which must be shown in putting it into practice by respecting the customs and regulations of each university and the different conditions under which State examinations are held:

Feels that it may in this connection make the following recommendations, to be carried out as circumstances permit:

(a) In cases in which the period of such exchanges is not limited to a single lecture or series of lectures it should be extended so as to cover a complete course.

(b) Professors in highly specialised branches of study and young teachers should not be excluded from this system of exchanges.

(c) Except in special circumstances, the professor sent abroad should possess a sufficient knowledge of one of the languages of the place in which he will have to continue his teaching.

(d) Exchanges may be taken to mean, in their strictest interpretation: one university professor going to another university, which in its turn would send one of its professors to take the place of the other professor,

Or, in a wider sense: a professor of one country going to give a lecture or a series of lectures in another country, which in turn would send one of its professors to a university in the former country.

These eventualities would necessarily require different methods, for the first would occur mainly in the case of professors of the same science and the same standing, who would thus be more or less interchangeable and could take each other's place for the whole duration of a course. Each country could draw up a list of such professors and communicate it to the other countries.

(e) It would appear that the organisation of these exchanges must be left, for the present, to agreements between individual countries and individual universities; it would be gratifying to see these agreements multiply and develop; the University Information Office, the creation of which is recommended by the Committee, might be utilised with a view to attaining this object.

(f) As regards the financial aspect of the problem, the Committee does not think that the moment has yet arrived for proposing an international scheme. States and universities must themselves estimate the financial sacrifices they may be prepared to make and regulate the allocation of expenses, if occasion arises, in accordance with special agreements.

We may, even at this early stage, lay down the following principles, which are in conformity with the dignity and the disinterestedness of science and advanced education, but which nevertheless do not lose sight of the economic position of professors, which is often precarious:

1. That these exchanges must not be made with a view to profit.

2. That the exchange professor should, in one way or another, be freed from expenditure and compensated for any loss which his change of residence may occasion.

It would be highly desirable for a fund to be set up, or a university convention to be concluded, the special object of which would be to meet the financial difficulties which are a bar to the extension of the system of exchanges. It might be possible to obtain the establishment of such a fund by private initiative if the League of Nations is unable to provide for it.

2. *Exchange of Students.*

(a) The Committee is of opinion that the exchange of students can be organised and developed very largely by the students themselves, and particularly by the international students'

associations. It is of opinion that an agreement among these associations would be desirable; the object of such an agreement would be to co-ordinate their efforts on practical lines, to supply each other with information and to prevent overlapping; but in giving effect to these recommendations none of these associations should be forced to modify its plan of work or abandon its special aims. The Committee has chiefly in view the four following associations, with which its Universities Sub-Committee is at present in touch: the International Students Federation, the World's Student Christian Federation, the Pax Romana and the International Federation of University Women. The Committee accordingly invites the Sub-Committee to make arrangements for a joint meeting between the Sub-Committee and the delegates of these four associations; the Sub-Committee will draw up beforehand the programme for this meeting in agreement with the associations and will submit it to the Committee.

(b) The Committee proposes that the universities of countries economically ruined should enter into relation with universities of countries which are more favourably placed; the former universities would forward to the latter universities the names of students who, having regard to their intellectual qualifications, were the most meritorious, and the latter universities would agree to accept these students and would afford them all requisite facilities, particularly in the form of grants and scholarships, to enable them to attend these universities for the purpose of continuing their studies. Such an arrangement might be drawn up conjointly with those national Committees on Intellectual Co-operation which have already been set up, or which may be set up in the future, in various countries, and also with the great international students' associations.

3. *Equivalent Recognition of Academic Studies and Degrees.*

(a) The Committee lays down the principle that the object of any system of the equivalent recognition of the diplomas and degrees of different countries and different universities should be to maintain or to raise the level of higher education. Consequently, no system may be established which will be prejudicial to the universities of countries in which education has already reached the highest level.

(b) The Committee is of opinion that the half-yearly system is capable to promote inter-university exchanges.

(c) The Committee decides that an enquiry into the question of equivalent diplomas and degrees at present recognised between various universities and various countries should be instituted for the purpose of furnishing a basis for the subsequent investigations of the Committee.

4. *University Information Office.*

The Committee proposes the formation of a University Information Office. This Office might be attached to the section of the Secretariat of the League which carries out the secretarial work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

The object, programme, method of work and budget of the Office might be determined in the following manner:

A. — The object of the Office will be to collect all documents concerning university life in all countries, to classify and to study them and to draw any useful information from them.

It will mainly deal with international relations between the universities and will make every endeavour possible to facilitate such relations.

B. — The Office shall collect documents and distribute information in accordance with the programme framed below:

I. *University Organisation.*

1. Relations between the universities and the State ;
2. Internal organisation (governing body, divisions, institutes, "seminars") ;
3. Relations between the various universities in the same country ;
4. National university information offices or similar national institutions.

II. *Organisation of Studies.*

1. Systems and periods of study ;
2. Division of studies ;
3. Matriculation ;
4. Examinations and degrees.

III. *Teaching Staff.*

1. Appointment, duration of appointment ;
2. Salaries ;
3. Unattached professors and lecturers ;
4. Assistants and readers ;
5. Admission of foreigners to the teaching staff.

IV. *Students.*

1. Administrative relations between the universities and the students, legal status of students, discipline ;
2. Organisation of students ;
3. Conditions of life (housing, feeding, requisites for study, grants in aid, scholarships, etc.).

V. *Social Importance of the Universities.*

1. Recruitment of teaching staff ;
2. Social position of professors ;
3. Social position of ex-students (doctors, lawyers, etc.) ;
4. Relations with the public (academic associations, university extension courses, public lectures and courses) ;
5. Scientific associations.

VI. *International Relations.*

1. Equivalent studies and examinations (comparative value of courses and examinations) ;
2. International agreements ;
3. Inter-university congresses ;
4. Scientific congresses ;
5. Students' congresses ;
6. Interchange of professors ;
7. Interchange of students ;
8. Interchange of publications ;
9. Exchanges between libraries ;
10. Vacation courses.

C. — The Office will keep constantly in touch with the national bureaux or other similar institutions.

In countries where there is no national inter-university bureau, the Office will endeavour to obtain the formation of one and meanwhile will appoint correspondents.

The Office will give information in the first place to the official administrative bodies of higher education in the various States, to the national bureaux and finally to the universities themselves, whether State controlled or free.

It will also be authorised to enter into relations with private associations and with individual persons.

It will publish a bulletin.

D. — The Office will be directed by the Secretary of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. He will be assisted by a temporary official for work of an administrative nature and by a shorthand typist¹.

5. *Courses of Lectures on Modern Nations.*

The Committee submits to the Council and to the Assembly of the League of Nations the following motion:

In order to diminish the sources of misunderstanding and the lack of sympathy between nations, the universities are invited to organise courses on the nations of to-day according to the facilities at their disposal.

It would be the aim of these courses to familiarise students with the existing political economic and moral conditions of foreign nations.

The programmes of these courses would be communicated to the University Information Office whose creation is recommended by the Committee.

6. *Teaching of Modern Languages, Literatures and Civilisations.*

In view of the importance, as regards the aims pursued by the League of Nations, and especially the establishment of closer relations between European and Oriental peoples, of extending the study of modern languages, the Committee, while not desiring in any way to prejudice the study of ancient languages and civilisations, requests the League of Nations to draw the attention of the Members of the League to the advisability of developing as fully as possible the teaching of modern languages, literatures and civilisations.

7. *International Vacation Courses.*

The Committee requests the Council:

(a) To invite the attention of Governments and university authorities to the importance of encouraging the organisation of international vacation courses and to offer the services of the Secretariat for the purpose of supplying any information required and of carrying on publicity work on behalf of these courses ;

¹ Any supplementary expenditure required for the formation of the Office would accordingly not exceed 30,700 Swiss francs per annum:

1 Member of Section B	13,700	Swiss francs.
1 Shorthand-typist	7,000	" "
Publications, work from experts, visits to national bureaux	10,000	" "

(b) To authorise the Committee to receive grants for the benefit of these international courses from any institution which might be interested in the scheme ;

(c) To encourage Governments and university authorities to make grants to students desirous of attending international vacation courses.

These courses should be international, not only as regards the students but also as regards the teaching staff and the programme of lectures. This programme should be communicated in due time to the University Information Office the creation of which is recommended by the Committee.

8. *Historical Publications.*

The Committee invites the University Sub-Committee to continue its work in the direction indicated by the following resolution, which has been adopted by the Sub-Committee:

The Sub-Committee, after having given favourable consideration to the report of M. Luchaire upon the suggestion of Dr. Millikan, requests M. Bannerjea, M. de Reynold, M. Luchaire, Dr. Nitobe and M. de Halecki to agree upon a scheme for a publication of this character and to indicate the possible stages of the work.

A scheme of this character, conceived from the universal scientific point of view, would be communicated to Dr. Millikan and to such experts as it may seem necessary to consult on the possibility of its realisation.

9. *Offer of the Municipality of Capri.*

The Committee specially draws the attention of the Council and of the Assembly to the striking suggestion of the Municipality of Capri and requests to be authorised to get into touch with the said Municipality and with the Italian Government for the purpose of finding out conditions under which the Chartreuse of Capri could be put at the disposal of artists from various countries.

The Committee considers it extremely desirable, with a view to the development of art and of international solidarity, to establish in picturesque localities centres of study and work for artists similar to that proposed by the Municipality of Capri.

Geneva.
September, 1st, 1923.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

REPORT

ON

SCIENTIFIC PROPERTY

submitted by Senator F. Ruffini and approved by the Committee.

FIRST PART. — CRITICAL SURVEY.

§ 1. THE PROBLEM.

Two main considerations have led the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, nominated by the Council of the League of Nations, to concern itself especially with the protection of scientific work and to examine, with this end in view, the possibility of extending to work of this nature the rights enjoyed by authors and inventors, rights which, in respect of artistic and literary property or industrial inventions, are recognised by the laws of all civilised States and by all international conventions.

The first of these considerations arises directly out of our inquiry into the present conditions of intellectual life. This inquiry has revealed, in a most distressing light, the critical condition of scientific work in all countries, as a result of the great war. It is a state of affairs which may shortly bring disaster upon our civilisation and which will, without doubt, become acute as soon as the present generation of eminent men of science has passed away. The war has thinned the ranks of the younger generation; the rapid rise in the cost of living and the universal desire to acquire rapid and large fortunes have still further diminished the number of those who had intended to devote themselves to pure scientific research. In truth, even greater than the shortage of money is the present shortage in the laboratories and, in general, in all scientific institutions of recruits of a high standard, of whom there was formerly a constant and certain supply.

It is therefore imperative that we should consider what means can be devised to remedy this critical condition of affairs. Among proposed remedies, that of affording the young generation the prospect, not only of future fame, but of an adequate rate of remuneration would not be the least efficacious.

This first consideration, which arises out of temporary conditions, must be supplemented by another consideration, of a permanent character. I refer to the flagrant and intolerable injustice — quite apart from present conditions of difficulty — which characterises the provisions of the laws regarding scientific work and inventions, in comparison with their provisions in regard to artistic and literary work or industrial inventions. It may be said that hitherto the law has only recognised the two extremes of intellectual work: the base and the summit. The inventor of a new kind of india-rubber heel, than which one can imagine nothing more earth-to-earthly, may acquire a fortune by patenting his invention. At the opposite extreme is the musical composer who could give to the world a Ninth Symphony, that is to say, the highest approach to the ideal made by the mind of man. For him, universal applause is not the only reward; the law regarding author's copyright enables him to secure the pecuniary profits which are his due. But to the man of science who observes a truth from which humanity will in the future draw immense and durable advantages, the law accords nothing. This omission will undoubtedly be a source of astonishment to future generations, just as we experience surprise at the defects in the legal systems of earlier times — defects which would be impossible at a later stage of civilisation. A link is wanting in the chain of law which should secure due recognition to all the creations of the mind, from the most positive, the most concrete, the most practical to the most abstract, the most transcendental and the most ideal.

In all countries, as will be seen, legal theory, even when it emanates from authors of the highest repute, has hitherto failed to explain so strange a phenomenon, except by inadequate or purely utilitarian reasons. These authors have even at times contented themselves with denying the existence of the problem in order to avoid acknowledging their inability to solve it.

It appeared to us, in the first place, that it was perhaps one of the duties of an organisation of a great institution, such as the League of Nations, for establishing universal justice, to study the problem and to propose means of putting an end to so flagrant an injustice. There is a great work of justice to be done and an ill to be redressed. Intellectual work, which, as a result of the great war, has been subject to the most disastrous restrictions and curtailments, might receive

compensation for these sufferings by developing the laws regulating these intellectual rights in such a way that the resulting progress would be decisive, fruitful and beneficial to humanity.

On the other hand, it is evident that the more effective the League of Nations can prove its authority in this sphere to be, the wider and more extensive will be the approbation which it will arouse in all the intellectual circles of the world, where there is undeniably a certain scepticism, we might even say disenchantment, in regard to the League. The task which we propose would therefore constitute an appropriate and effective means of propaganda in circles at present in little sympathy with science, but which it is of great importance to gain to our cause.

(See *La protection internationale de la propriété intellectuelle et la guerre mondiale* 1914-1918, a collection of documents published by the Bureaux Internationaux of Berne ; Berne, 1919.)

§ 2. THE METHOD.

It is of great importance that we should avoid questions of pure terminology. The scientific world, it is clear, is still very far from being agreed on the matter, and discussion is not unlikely to lead to serious difficulties. It proved, at the very outset, an almost fatal stumbling-block to the Convention of Berne of 1886, the French advocating the term "literary and artistic property" (*propriété littéraire et artistique*) as against the term "author's rights" (*droit d'auteur*) proposed by the Germans. The situation was only saved by the adoption of the intermediate formula "authors' rights in their literary and artistic works" (*droit des auteurs sur leurs œuvres littéraires et artistiques*), which occurs in the first article of the Convention. We cannot, therefore, do otherwise than agree with the rapporteur of the Italian law, Antonio Scialoja, who, despite his own firmly-established and clear opinion in the matter, expressly declares, in his admirable Report, that he intends to refrain from attempting any definition of the rights to be protected or from determining their legal nature. Let us, therefore, on the above analogy, simply use the term: "rights of men of science in their scientific works or discoveries", or, as we have expressed it, for the sake of brevity: "*scientific property*", thus distinguishing it from *literary and artistic property* and from *industrial property*. For the sake of still greater brevity, we may include the three separate types under one common term: *intellectual property*. As was remarked by Eugène Pouillet (in his preface to the first edition of his famous *Theoretical and Practical Treatise on Literary and Artistic Property*, 3rd edition, revised by MM. Maillard and Coro, Paris 1908, p. 9), this title comprises the rights which the law recognises as vested in the author in respect of the products of his brain, whether they be of the nature of an industrial invention or of a literary or artistic work. It is, moreover, as we have noted above, the terminology adopted by the Berne Bureaux.

Further, it is, for various reasons, important that we should exclude all questions of pure legal theory.

In the first place, there is no branch of legal science in which opinions are more varied or more widely divergent. We are still far distant from the time when we can flatter ourselves that we have arrived at a final and united opinion in regard to the determination and classification of the rights which the law recognises to be vested in the artist, the author or even in the inventor. It would therefore be dangerous to imagine that it would be possible to build a solid structure of law on the shifting sands of theory.

The legislator who deduces his laws from theoretic premisses, instead of obtaining them by induction from the circumstances of life, works in vain. Good laws, as was said by the sages of old, should arise "*rebus ipsis dictantibus et necessitate exigente*"; — or yet again, "*lex imperat non docet*", that is to say that it is not incumbent on the legislation to give definitions. Although we are not here acting as legislators, our labours are preparatory to a work of a legal character, and since they partake of its nature, they should be subject to the same rules.

In order to prove the truth of these assertions, it will suffice to recall that the tyranny of traditional conceptions, inseparable from the classic definition of property rights, for a long time placed the most serious obstacles in the way of the recognition of artistic, literary and industrial property. Josef Kohler (*Lehrbuch des Patentrechts*, § 1, No. VII, Text book on Patent Rights) regarded the protection which was formerly accorded in Germany to inventors as being insufficient, in comparison with what had been done in England, for example, since the date of the celebrated Statute of 1623, or in France since the legislation of the Revolution, which Kohler himself characterises as grandiose. German inventors had therefore to go to England or elsewhere to secure protection. Pilenko, a Russian author (*Das Recht des Erfinders*, Rights of Inventors, translated from the Russian by Augustin and annotated by Siebenbürgen, Berlin 1907, p. 78), considered that he had succeeded in proving that the reason of this inferiority lay herein, that, while France had arrived at the desired destination by a stroke of the pen and England by the incomparable practical sense of her jurists, Germany was, impeded from advance and, as it were, overweighted by excess of thoroughness (*Gründlichkeit*) in her authors, who were too scrupulously attached to the traditions of Roman Law.

We may here, with advantage, mention a very recent example, from which we shall later draw some very profitable deductions.

The last word of the men of science appears to have been said, in the course of the lively and celebrated controversy on the legal character of *author's and inventor's rights*, by the two eminent professors of the University of Berlin, Otto Gierke and Josef Kohler, whose deaths the world of science has recently had to mourn.

This controversy still forms the basis of all constructive theory in the matter, as may be seen in the most recent work of a German specialist, Professor Allfeld "Copyright and Patent Law,

Urheber- und Erfinderrecht") in the *Encyclopaedia of Law and Political Science*, by Kohlrausch, Kaskel and Spiethoff (Vol. XIV, p. 2 et seq.), or in the works of specialists of all countries (e.g., Julio Lopez Quizoya: *La propiedad intelectual in España*. Madrid 1918, p. 11; Sfetea: *De la nature personnelle du droit d'auteur*, Paris 1923, etc.).

Developing a thought of Emmanuel Kant (*Die Metaphysik der Sitten*) in *Samtliche Werke* (Vol. V, p. 97 et seq.), Gierke (see his famous treatise, (*Deutsches Privatrecht*), German Private Law, Berlin 1885, Vol. I, p. 748 et seq.) recognises that a right of personality subsists in the works of the mind; not only at the moment of creation but also after publication, such rights being the outcome of a faculty which is inseparable from the creative faculties of the individual. Thus all privileges arising out of an author's rights, even those of an economic character, fall within the sphere and under the protection of his personality, of which they were an emanation. For this reason creditors cannot claim publication rights in the unpublished work of an author, such publication being entirely subject to the author's wishes. Similarly, in the case of a work published and adapted to an economic purpose, the relations between the author and his creative work do not cease. The author retains, even after he has alienated the rights in his work, a right of action, a moral right (*un droit moral*, as the French say) against all persons who disfigure or modify this work, so that, in fact, he only transmits the exercise of his right without alienating the substance.

Josef Kohler, who quotes a passage of Schopenhauer (*Nachlass*), published by Frauenstädt, p. 380 et seq.), has, in many of his writings, more particularly in *Urheberrecht an Schriftwerken und Verlagsrecht* Author's and Publisher's Copyright, Stuttgart 1907, § 1, No. II, p. 3, etc.), actively contested the theory which we have just advanced. He maintains, on the contrary, that intellectual creation confers on the author rights analogous to the right of property, with this difference, however, that the right of property is in respect of material possession, while the right of an author, on the other hand, extends over immaterial possessions. Hence one may define the rights of an author as a right in immaterial possessions. It is therefore not a right of personality vested in one of its emanations, but a property right, if one may thus enlarge the traditional categories of objects in which property originally subsisted. Property in material possessions presents a close analogy with that in immaterial possessions. They both denote an exclusive and absolute right of use, apart from the person, a right which may be alienated or exercised. They also present characteristic differences, one permanent, the other temporary. The rights of the creator of the idea — in virtue of its own nature and not of legal provisions — expire in the course of time, for, though the idea arises in the brain of the individual, it yet inevitably becomes in the end the property of all. Society cannot indeed admit the idea of a perpetual right in inventions.

The two theories have had a considerable repercussion in all countries, — in France, in the first place, and, to a still greater degree, in Italy — a repercussion which was all the stronger because a theory almost identical with that of Kohler was at the same time advanced by the Belgian jurist, (Picard, *Des droits intellectuels*, Brussels 1879), in various subsequent works and, more recently, in the preface to a book by G. Van der Hoeghen (*Ce qui peut faire l'objet d'un brevet d'invention*, Liège 1916).

We now come to a law which is the most notable of all modern laws, I mean the French law of May 20th, 1920, which establishes *le droit de suite* (continuous rights) in respect of work of artists, and which takes an unconscious but decisive attitude in regard to this doctrinal controversy, oversetting all previous conceptions and conclusions. This law is the product of a revolt of the national conscience, "a movement of indignation", as is well said by M. Albert Vannois (*Droit d'auteur* Rights of Author, 1920, p. 101), against the flagrant injustice that a person who acquires a work of art can become rich, owing to the selling price rising with the celebrity of the author and with the increasing recognition of the value of the work, while the author himself is denied the right to benefit in his turn by this increase in value of works which are an emanation of his personality. The law of 1920 bears the stamp of a great pioneer law, inspired by living reality and not by scientific speculation. In this connection, Kohler himself (*Handbuch*, § 1, p. 13), although conceding to Germany the first rank in the field of constructive theory, recognises the merit of foreign countries and, in particular, France, as will be seen below. It is perhaps not out of place here to recall the most characteristic provisions of the French law of 1920. Article I reads: "Artists shall have an inalienable continuous right in those of their works which are placed on public sale". The *proportional part* of the sale price reserved to the artist, through all the changes of property which affect the work of art, shall continue unaltered even if the price of the work has fallen. The same right shall pertain to the heirs of artists for a term which is equal to the duration of the term of artistic property. Finally, this law lays down that the *droit de suite* "may be exercised despite any cession of artistic property which may have been made by the artists, their heirs and assigns prior to the passing of the present law".

It is evident that French legislation, while recognising the artist's power of alienating his work and transferring the property to others, has to a certain extent adopted the theory of the right of property in immaterial possessions; but, on the other hand, by instituting a sort of higher right (*domaine éminent*) which continues to link the creator and his production, and by declaring this *droit de suite* as inalienable, it has created a "right strictly attached to the person". The law is intended to protect artists against themselves, after the example of ancient law which declared personal liberty to be inalienable, with a view to preventing citizens from selling it or (as Tacitus states was the custom of the old Germans) from staking it on a wager. French law has, thus, unreservedly adopted the theory of individual rights.

The foregoing statement proves that the out-and-out partisans of one or the other theory — that of property in immaterial goods or that of the right of personality — have only dealt with one aspect of the truth. It is fortunate, therefore, that the authors of the law of 1920 were not dominated by any doctrinal prejudices!

Nevertheless, apart from all observations in regard to this method, this new and exceptional right allowed to artists by the above-mentioned French law (and also recognised by a Belgian law dated 1921 and bearing the signature of our eminent colleague, J. Destrée) makes the contrast between the position of artists and authors on the one hand, and of men of science on the other, all the more striking from the legal point of view. It is imperative that a method should be found to eliminate this injustice.

§ 3. AUTHOR OR INVENTOR ?

If we examine the present state of the law in regard to protection of the creations of the mind of man, the first fact which strikes the observer is the duality of the systems adopted for this purpose.

The legal title which confers such protection: "*author's rights and inventor's rights*", is a dual title. The first term comprises "men of letters, composers, artists of all classes"; the second, "inventors and creators of industrial designs and models".

The method of protection is also a dual one: in respect of the first class, only *author's rights* are recognised; in respect of the second class, *patents* are conferred.

In every State also there is a dual system of internal laws dealing with the two questions: literary or artistic property; and industrial property.

The International Union is also dual in character and there are therefore two international instruments conferring protection in respect of these rights: the Convention of Paris of March 23rd, 1883, regarding inventions, and the Convention of Berne of September 9th, 1886, regarding author's rights.

Finally, the central organisation created for the purpose of applying these Conventions is dual in character. It comprises, first, the Bureau International de l'Union Industrielle, established at Berne in 1884, which since January 1st, 1885, has published a monthly review entitled *La Propriété industrielle* and secondly, the Bureau de l'Union Littéraire, established in January 1888, which also publishes a review, entitled *Le Droit d'Auteur*, of which the first number appeared on January 15th, 1888.

Those who have occupied themselves, even if only for practical reasons, with this dual question have not failed to realise the fact that the two protected rights are in essence identical.

The differences consist only in the scope of the rights inherent in the work created and in the method by which this right is exercised; they do not lie in the character of the right itself. They arise not out of the nature but out of the importance, the dignity, the immediate practical utility of the intellectual work. In essence, the inventor is the *author* of his invention, as the creator of industrial designs is the *author* of his designs, in the same way that the artist is the *author* of his work of art (cf. for example, Allfeld, *op. cit.*, page 1).

The fundamental reason for such legal protection as is accorded to these two different categories of workers is indeed a single one, that is to say, respect for the creative activities of the intellect or, as it has been recently expressed by Professor Allfeld, protection of work of the mind against the depredations of other persons.

Professor Ferrara has observed with reason (*La concezione economica dei diritti su beni immateriali*, The Economic Conception of Rights in immaterial Property), Naples, 1910, page 25) that the best proof of the identity of substance in different categories of authors' rights is to be seen in the tendency to determine these rights in a single law, sufficiently comprehensive to include all the various categories of rights. There is also a tendency to adopt an identical terminology. This close internal connection of substance is manifest also in external signs: the two international bureaux mentioned above have indeed been placed under a single directing body and a joint answer has actually been sent by the two combined bureaux to the questionnaire submitted by our Commission.

It is true that it pleases authors to speak of *author's rights* and *inventor's rights* as distinct, but what mankind has not yet been disposed to accomplish has already in part been brought about by the force of circumstances.

It should be remarked that, in spite of this distinction, the selfsame disquisitions on the legal nature of the rights which claim protection are to be found in both classes of treatise. Josef Kohler, for example, maintains his theory of immaterial property both in his book on authors' rights and in his treatise on patent rights. His attack on Gierke (if I confine myself to the most recent Italian literature which I have at hand) may be found in the two volumes of Professor Nicola Stolfi: *La proprietà intellettuale*, Turin 1915, Vol. I, page 216 et seq., or in the two volumes of the barrister Enrico Luzzatto: *Le privative industriali*, Milan 1914, Vol. I, page 108 et seq.). A certain tendency towards unification is, however, apparent at the present time even in the field of science; it is sufficient to cite the work already mentioned of Professor Allfeld, or that of M. Couhin: *La propriété industrielle, artistique et littéraire*, Paris 1894 to 1898, or that of Professor Di Vranco: *Proprietà industriale, letteraria ed artistica*, Milan 1915, etc.

But there is a further and more important fact, namely, the purely abstract tendency towards unification. Two questions arise, both of which are exceedingly significant from our point of view.

In the first place, under what system should the protection of applied works of art be placed, that is to say, industrial designs and models? For it is evident that they constitute in some sense a connecting link between art and industry, between authors' rights and patent rights.

In the second place, there are classes of invention, such as methods of stenography, book-keeping, etc., which, while capable of industrial application, that is to say, capable of satisfying the practical needs of social life, cannot be simply disposed of as subjects for patents. These

inventions, it is obvious, constitute a connecting link, in a sense inverse to that of the preceding case, between industry and art, between patent rights and author's rights.

Certain legislators have found a way out of the difficulty by enacting separate laws in regard to industrial designs or models, on the one hand, and patent and author's rights on the other. As regards the industrial inventions mentioned above (methods of stenography, book-keeping, etc.), they have, it might almost be said, arbitrarily relegated them to the sphere of author's rights.

Abstract theory has had greater trouble in overcoming this difficulty. It has found a way out by maintaining that the outcome of intellectual activities (industrial designs and models on the one hand, methods of stenography and book-keeping on the other) constitutes, so to speak, a *neutral zone* between the fields of industrial privilege and author's rights.

The truth is indeed far other and more serious than this. The truth is that we are confronted with an edifice of legislative enactment and doctrinal theory which is incomplete and imperfect, an edifice which has been founded upon a base of practical utility and which has been completed under the inspiration of the loftiest ideals. But in this edifice there are more dark places to be illumined and more empty spaces to be filled up than in the so-called neutral zone. We refer to the important zone in which scientific work, properly so called, is developed, in which are inherent the rights of author and inventor, and which yet constitutes an intermediate and highly important zone between the two territories. Far larger space must therefore be given to scientific work in the system of protection which has been evolved with a view to promoting works of the human intelligence. The object of this fresh class of protection should be to constitute a connecting link or, as we might prefer to say, a bridge between the two parts of this system which have been already defined by legislators and elaborated by jurists.

Two remarks may be made in conclusion.

It is obvious that any attempt to secure for scientific work such recognition as it deserves, and such protection as is properly due to it, would in itself not only constitute a work of justice but also a contribution towards a development of that system of existing law which has been shown to be rudimentary and imperfect from all points of view.

But another remark remains to be made: scientific work has hitherto enjoyed the protection of law when it has been in the nature of literary work. The result, however, of this protection is, so to speak, paradoxical, since it is obviously not the substance which is protected, but only its external apparel — not the idea itself but the publication of the idea. A professor of the Faculty of Science at Lille published before the war a collection of his lectures on the dynamics of motor-cars. Having remained at Lille during the period of German occupation, he learned in 1920 that a young engineer had just brought out at Paris a volume on explosive engines of which a large part had been taken from his book. The Court of Paris delivered judgment to the effect that it was impossible to establish a claim in respect of every conception, discovery, or scientific theory unless they had been applied in industrial practice or unless, independently of the substance, the form or the literary method had been pirated by the offender. The Court could have given no other judgment, having regard to the existing system of law. But it must be conceded that there is a certain irony in a decision of this character.

In other words, only the forms, that is to say, the least important and the least disinterested part of scientific work, such as treatises, explanatory works, etc., are at the present time entitled to the benefits of the law! The protection of law, as Berthelot has said in his memoir on Denis Papin, tends inevitably to raise a genius of the second rank, or even a commonplace man who has no genius at all, above a genius of the first rank!

§ 4. GENERAL OBJECTIONS.

The chief objections which are at present opposed to the recognition of the scholar's rights over the creations of his mind are the same as those formerly raised against the claims of the artist and the inventor. If a comparative table were drawn up of the former and present objections, they would be found to coincide exactly. The comparison would convince us that these objections will be overcome to-day, just as they were in former times, by the exigencies of life and progress and through the instrumentality of legislation and education. Indeed, it may be considered that arguments on this point have been exhausted.

In the first place, it is affirmed that every new idea, every fresh discovery becomes at once part of the general heritage of mankind, the creator or author finding sufficient compensation in glory and the gratitude of the world. Bacon has already given expression to this idea in his *Novum Organum*, in which he commends the ancients, who accorded divine honours to inventors for having deserved well of all mankind, while to heroes who had but rendered service to their own country they granted a reward. In more imaginative language, though expressing the same idea, the Great Encyclopædia says, under the word "Invention": "Throughout history the principal apotheoses fall to the share of inventors, whom the Earth adores as visible gods. Is it a wonder then that they should be sensitive regarding the honour of their discoveries, that being the last thing which man can surrender. Thales, after having discovered the proportion of the diameter of the sun to the length of its orbit around the earth, divulged this discovery to one, who, as a return, offered him anything he might ask. Thales only begged that he should preserve for him the honour of his discovery. This Grecian sage, poor and bowed with years, was insensible to money gain or any other advantage, but not to an act of injustice which would wrench from him the glory he merited".

It need not be a matter of surprise to us, therefore, that men like Prudhon, Macaulay and Mazzini were equally opposed to any sort of recognition of intellectual property. Mazzini wrote

as late as 1866 to a Milanese editor: "I have never believed in literary property rights, as understood to-day. If a writer capable of producing really profitable work is without means, he should, in a well-ordered republic, receive the assistance and the encouragement of the nation; but thought made manifest belongs to everyone, constitutes social property. The breath of the human spirit cannot form a monopoly. It is the duty of all to encourage, of none to shackle or restrain the diffusion of truth".

There was, moreover, determined opposition from experts, specialists, authorities. Jurists and economists of all nations have seized upon the objection expressed by these great thinkers as a means of combating every form of intellectual property. Experts, it is true, always prefer to maintain an attitude of prudent reserve. Specialists do not care to be disturbed in the well-defined limits of their specialities or in their mental habits; and has not Gladstone said somewhere that no great feat of social or legal progress has ever been accomplished within the memory of man without encountering the objections of the experts?

Let us consider what has taken place as regards patents. In France they were the object of the most lively and even violent attacks during the second half of the last century. A famous economist, Michel Chevalier, became the special apostle of the new doctrine, going so far as to say, in a letter subsequently published in 1863, that the system of granting patents was *an outrage on liberty and industry, an obsolete legacy of the past*, and consequently should disappear. The system of granting patents is not perfect; on that we are all agreed. But who to-day would endorse the absurd and final verdict pronounced by M. Chevalier? Did not the Committee of Inquiry formed in England to consider this question as early as 1872 express its opinion that *the protection of inventions is favourable to the progress of industry*?

Again, an English jurist, Mr. Carrol Romer (Reports of the Italian Society for the Study of Industrial Legislation, 1922, p. 20 et seq.), has recently made a graph showing the grants of patent rights and export licences, by which it is seen that these correspond perfectly.

In the second place, it is said that scientific work is the result of collective co-operation. But has not the same remark been passed with regard to art and could it not be still more fitly made with reference to industrial inventions? All the mediæval writers borrowed from the ancients whatever is finest in their works. Shakespeare and Molière obtained their material from Italian comedy and, though Berthelot could say, "Science is collective work", Goethe no less rightly affirmed the same with regard to literature. In his Report, which we will presently consider, Professor Barthélemy very appositely quotes the following remarkable passage from Goethe: "The greatest genius produces nothing of value if he has to draw entirely on his own mental resources. Every one of my works has been suggested to me by thousands of persons, thousands of different objects; scholars, ignorant persons, sages and fools, children and greybeards—all have collaborated in my art; my work merely combines multiple elements, all drawn from the world of reality, and this whole bears the name of Goethe".

Moreover, since every discovery is the result of various previous discoveries and is occasionally the simultaneous result of the work and research of several men of science, the objection is raised that it would be very difficult—nay, impossible—to determine the priority of the discovery and the part played by each of those who really had contributed thereto and, consequently, the recognition of scientific property would entail inextricable complications, unceasing conflict and law-suits interminable.

But as regards author's or patent rights the same questions and difficulties present themselves, and yet no one considers them as conclusive objections against literary, artistic or industrial property. Law-suits concerned with scientific property will neither be more numerous nor more subtle than those regarding literary, artistic or industrial property.

A distinguished fellow-member of the Committee, Senator Lafontaine, has told us in this connection how, when defending the priority of Edison's electric lamp patent, he found himself confronted with 74 prior claims. Experts were called in to assist in the conduct of the case. There and then nine-tenths of these prior claims were set aside, and, after a few sittings, Edison finally won his case against the remaining claimants.

One of the most successful musical works of recent years, *Cavalleria Rusticana*, was the subject of a legal dispute which was ultimately decided by the Court of Cassation at Turin. This tribunal, basing its judgment on the advice of experts, determined the proportions of merit in the success of the piece due respectively to the author of the drama, Giovanni Verga, to the author of the libretto, Targioni-Terzetti, and, finally, to the composer, Mascagni. Would not a decision of this kind with regard to scientific matters be arrived at more easily, seeing how much more favourable to exact judgment are the factors and criteria which have to be determined.

Assuredly law-suits regarding scientific paternity will often prove of a most delicate nature, as indeed must every law-suit for the establishing of paternity. But could one conscientiously deny the claim of parenthood to a woman who had only had to do with one man solely because some other woman could not indicate which of a number of males was the father of her child?

There is always difficulty in establishing paternity, but in the case of scientific work there will presumably be less difficulty than in other cases (as is noted, with justice, by Mr. Dalimier and Mr. Gallié in their Report, which we shall consider in greater detail later), for a classification of discoveries will become necessary and it will be possible to prepare a genealogical table (none exists at present). Moreover, it will be easier to secure experts in this subject than in any other, for any cases which may come before the courts.

Then finally, the question of complications is mentioned. M. Barthélemy rightly and wittily observed that complications and progress necessarily go hand-in-hand and, consequently, the justice meted out to men of science would obviously be more complicated than the brutal injustice of which they had hitherto been the noble and uncomplaining victims.

§ 5. SPECIFIC OBJECTIONS.

A. *Invention and Discovery.*

We shall now confine ourselves exclusively to the consideration of the specific, hence essentially technical, objections raised against the recognition of the savant's rights to his idea or discovery. They are mainly of two kinds:

- (a) *Real invention*, it is said, is a different thing from *pure discovery*.
- (b) *Artistic literary creation*, they add, is similarly different from *scientific conception*.

It is to be observed that, from the point of view of the relations they establish between *invention* and *discovery*, the principal systems of legislation can be subdivided into three groups.

First, the Latin group, which, inspired by the French law of 1844, declares *inventions* and *discoveries* to be capable of being patented (Article 2), excluding, however, from the latter category "*theoretical or purely scientific discoveries and ideas*" (Article 30). Similar provisions are contained in the Italian law of 1859 (Articles 1, 6).

Secondly, the Anglo-American group, which, so to speak, makes no allusion to the existence of any difference between invention and discovery. Laws of various dates in force in the United States, and the Regulation of June 17th, 1907, simply mention "*any new and useful art, machine, manufacture or composition of matter or improvements thereof*". And the English law of 1907 says: "*invention means any manner of new manufacture*".

Thirdly, the Germanic group, while, of course, acknowledging the difference between inventions and discoveries which have already been admitted in a general fashion in jurisprudence and legal doctrine, avoids making any allusion to discoveries, and only refers to "new inventions capable of being applied to industry". "Patente werden erteilt für neue Erfindungen, welche eine gewerbliche Verwertung gestatten". See Article 1, German Law of 1891.

As is seen, protection is refused, by all three systems alike, to purely scientific discoveries; by explicit exclusion in the Latin group, by the absence of any mention in the Germanic group, and implicitly, by the enumerative and descriptive wording of the laws, in the Anglo-American group. These diverse methods of exclusion are not, however, devoid of serious consequences, as regards the jurisprudence and legal doctrine of the different countries.

It must especially be noted that, according to German law, the grant of a patent is not only refused in the case of *theoretical or purely scientific discoveries*, but of all discoveries in general, even of *discoveries immediately operative*, to use Antonio Scialoja's happy expression, *i.e.*, those which are at once put in practical application.

Certain eminent exponents of German legal doctrine, particularly Kohler, have emphasised the difference referred to between invention and discovery. According to Kohler (*Handbuch*, paragraph 4, page 89), invention in the technical sense is a kind of new creation of the human intellect, or more, precisely, a creation which tends to dominate nature by utilising forces pre-existent in nature. "But creation," he affirms, "is the antithesis of discovery." Discovery is but the revelation of that which exists in nature, and all science of this nature is excluded from the protection afforded by patent. Kohler himself displays a certain *naïveté* in the passage in which he endeavours to demonstrate that, if the invention is preceded or accompanied by a discovery, this is not a sufficient reason for refusing a patent to the inventor — as if discovery were a lesser, more imperfect form of intellectual activity!

It would show lack of appreciation not to recognise the praiseworthy efforts made by German science to solve this difficult question, upon which it has expended all the resources of its learning and speculative powers. But it has entirely failed to produce any positive or even relatively consistent results. Professor Schanze ("Erfindung und Entdeckung" in Hirt's *Annalen des deutschen Reichs*, 1894, pp. 653-721) says, for example, that, while invention is *productive*, discovery is only *receptive*. Herr Damme (*Das Deutsche Patentrecht*; Berlin 1906, p. 136), on the other hand, basing his opinion on Wundt's psychology, maintains that the difference between invention and discovery is that the former signifies the relation of the individual to a thought originating and existing solely in his brain; the second is the relation of an individual to an object outside and apart from himself. But Professor Osterrieth (*Lehrbuch des gewerblichen Rechtsschutzes*, Leipzig 1908, p. 61) urges, as an objection to Professor Schanze's theory, that in discovery also there are productive elements, and phases where voluntary action comes into play, just as, he goes on to say, "in the discovery of an island there is the phase of discovery and the phase of occupation". As regards Herr Damme's theory, it is obvious that its very fragile basis could be all too easily shattered by any other philosophy or psychology which might be in fashion. Kohler's teaching, founded, as we have seen, upon the criterion of *creation* (which he supposes is non-existent in discovery, though existent in invention), has also been attacked in a work — perhaps the most original on this subject — by M. Du Bois-Reymond (*Erfindung und Erfinder*, Berlin 1906, p. 65), which excludes this factor even from invention and demonstrates, by some happily chosen examples, the numerous cases in which discovery and invention are either coincident or co-related or even intermingled. M. Pilenko, a Russian, although professing to be the grateful disciple of the greatest German jurists, makes a no less determined attack on Kohler in regard to this matter (*Das Recht des Erfinders*, Berlin, 1907, p. 227). This very detailed and exhaustive work was received in the most flattering manner by the most eminent German authorities.

A more important and more striking fact is that in Germany, notwithstanding the letter of the law of 1891 (the perspicuity of which Herr Damme extols as being sufficient to remove all difficulties), and notwithstanding the opinions of the most competent writers, the jurisprudence

of the Supreme Imperial Court (Reichsgericht) has not been able to refuse patent rights to discoveries suitable for industrial application. The tribunal referred to has simply avoided the difficulty by covering real and veritable *discoveries* with the name of *inventions*, in order to grant them the protection and privilege of the Patent Laws.

Hence we need not marvel that several authors, occupied solely with the practical side of the question, as, for example, the French lawyer and engineer Bonnet (*Etude de la législation allemande sur les Brevets d'invention*, Paris s.a., p. 34), or the commentator on German law, Kent (*Das Patentgesetz vom 7. April 1891*, Berlin, 1906, p. 50), have had, for the sake of peace, to agree that, since it had been found impossible to trace a very definite line of demarcation between discovery and invention, and hence to find a truly scientific definition of the latter, the diverse factors furnished by experience had been brought together with a view to forming a *practical definition*. But Kohler himself supplies us with an example of the length to which juridical casuistry may go when he says (*Handbuch*, paragraph 37) that there is *industrial utilisation* and hence the possibility of obtaining a patent, for an invention, concerned with church ritual, which tests the degree of purity of the wine in the Communion chalice and so prevents its sacramental character from being imperilled by adulteration. Truth to tell, it would be difficult to say whether this illustration is the more impious or absurd.

It is therefore somewhat surprising that Kohler's teaching, which is opposed to any recognition of discoveries, taken as whole, has found supporters not only in Germany, where at least he had the letter of the law in his favour, but also in Italy in Ramella (*Trattato della proprietà industriale*, Rome, 1909, p. 38), and in France in Huard (*Traité de la propriété intellectuelle*, Paris, 1903-1906, I, p. 46). And yet the texts of the respective laws of these two countries are opposed to the exclusion of discoveries capable of practical application. To get over the difficulty, Huard does not hesitate to assert that French law has attributed a different meaning to the word *discovery* in each of the two articles quoted (2 and 30). In Article 2 *discovery* is, he contends, employed simply as a synonym for *invention*, while in Article 30 it is employed in the sense of *discovery* properly so called. Similarly, M. Moinié (*Brevets d'invention*, Paris, 1896, Vol. I, p. 10) says: "The word *discovery* in Article 1 of the law is not to be read in any other way than as a repetition of the word *invention*".

This affirmation is in contradiction with the precedents of French law, among which there was the celebrated debate between Philippe Dupin, rapporteur of the law of 1844, and Arago on Article 30 of that law, a debate which ought to have sufficed as a guide to French experts. And yet, according to M. Couhin (*op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 333), even a man like Pouillet has not always exactly understood the lesson to be learnt from that debate. The truth is that this eminent writer's conclusions are quite superficial as regards this point. He too satisfies himself by referring the reader to the works of Kohler, who, for his part, had plainly stated that the works of the Frenchman were absolutely *anti-scientific* (*Urheberrecht*, p. 501).

The greatest fault in the French, and to a certain extent in the Italian doctrine also, is the desire at all costs to introduce into a legislative system which has already many defects debatable theories which are of foreign origin and have been evolved with regard to an utterly different legislative system also not exempt from defects.

The more practical, more elastic and, from a scientific standpoint, more unpretentious formulation of their laws has permitted English and American writers to overcome the difficulty with the most perfect ease. Mr. Walker confines himself to the pronouncement that "the discoveries of inventors are inventions"¹ (*The Patent Law*, New York, 1904, Par. 1), and Mr. Roberts says, in *The Grant and Validity of British Patents*, London, 1903, p. 34): "Discovery constitutes patentable invention when it produces a new industry".¹ And that is all. The American writer Macauber (*The Fixed Law of Patents*, Boston, 1909, Par. 347) exclaims: "It has never been possible to establish a line of demarcation between discovery and invention. It is said that it is possible to establish between them a fine psychological distinction. As it is not, however, the mental act but the description of it in concrete form which constitutes patentable invention or discovery, this distinction is of no importance"¹.

But the most important result is that Anglo-American jurisprudence has had free scope to extend the protection of the law to every kind of discovery, provided that it could take its place among *useful manufactures*.

Was not, then, the young Italian writer and lawyer, Luzzatto (*op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 220) mistaken in his conclusion that, because a firm juridical foundation had not hitherto been given to the distinction between invention and discovery (the only efforts which had been made being based on etymological and philological data, or on appeals to psychological and philosophical standards), the distinction referred to would be foreign to the domain of law, and hence quite useless for the application of the law.

One further remark which has more direct bearing upon our subject. We read, for example, in the very eloquent introduction which an authority like M. Pouillet has put at the beginning of his famous treatise on patents and on literary property, passages like the following (*Traité de la propriété littéraire*, p. 11): "the world created exclusively by human thought, though infinite as that thought; is just as much open to conquest as is the material world". And here one would be tempted to conclude that a mind so elevated and so profoundly imbued with a sense of justice must also necessarily espouse the cause of scientific property. But no! The author is like all the others: he too disposes of scientific discoveries in a couple of curt, dry and peremptory words (see *Traité des brevets*, No. 7). But we must not neglect to call the reader's attention to one exception, the more praiseworthy in that it appears to be the only one. The Italian writer already

¹ Quotation translated from French text.

mentioned, M. Luzzatto, writes (Vol. I, p. 17 and p. 214): "It is not surprising that the ancients did not recognise any sort of intellectual property, since the same phenomenon appears, with the same flagrant injustice, in our present civilisation without an effort being made by anyone to remedy it and, indeed, without any consciousness of the injustice that is committed every day. And in truth, what recompense is offered by modern civilisation to the men of science who make great discoveries which will perhaps bring about marvellous changes and enormous advantages to industry and enable others to become fabulously rich? Nothing! In other words, jurisprudence, which, in the course of its evolution, has already succeeded in evolving and protecting the rights of the author and inventor, has not yet succeeded in evolving the rights of the man of science nor in finding a means of rewarding him."

§ 6. (b) ARTISTIC CREATION AND SCIENTIFIC CONCEPTION.

Pure scientific discovery, already excluded from the protection accorded to invention, on the ground that it does not present a *quid inventum*, is equally excluded from that accorded to works of art because it does not present a *quid creatum*.

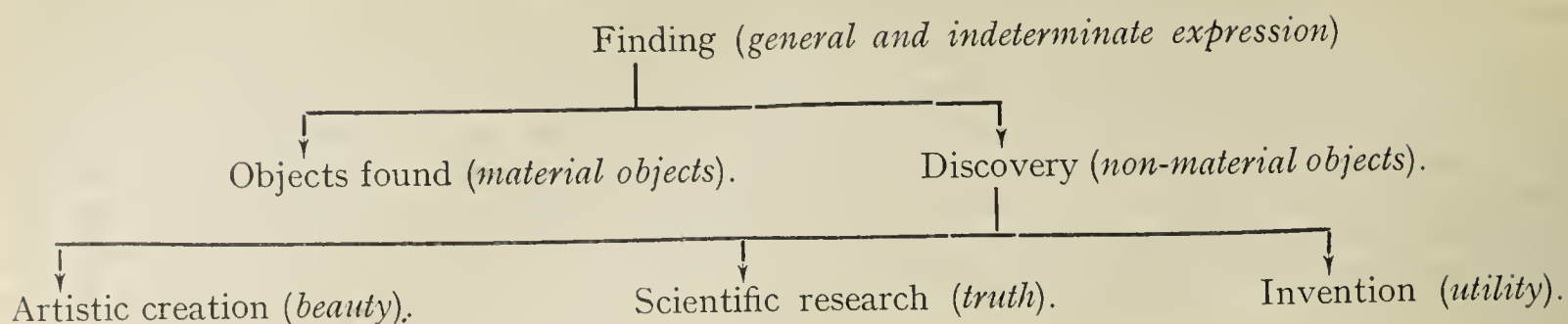
In this connection, let us once more consult the most accredited of the law authorities, Herr Kohler (*Urheberrecht an Schriftwerken*, Stuttgart, 1907, Chap. I, p. 10 et seq.), who differentiates in the most definite fashion between invention, as well as literary work and pure discovery. The right of the author and that of the inventor may, he says, be regarded as exactly on the same footing. The differences of a secondary order which they present is not in substance, but solely in quality; and it may be formulated thus: the right of the author is connected with an *aesthetic conception*, while the right of the inventor relates to a *technical conception*. The conception may indeed be æsthetic in a material sense, when it is concerned with images far removed from reality, and in a formal sense when it clothes a scientific idea in literary form. So that the right of the author can never be exercised in respect of a scientific idea or discovery itself, for science is free. The æsthetic conception has only a claim to protection if it is made concrete in the form of ideal representation, and in the same way a technical conception enjoys protection when it tends towards a goal, that is, towards the satisfaction of any human need. Consequently, the right of the author and the right of the inventor, although different in quality, may enjoy the same protection and obtain recognition of priority before the courts. The same cannot be said of discoveries in the strict sense of the word. The question of priority with regard to them cannot be submitted to the courts, whose duty it is, not to pronounce upon the degree of accuracy of an assertion, but solely to decide to whom a certain right belongs. The question of scientific priority could only be put to the judges as an *a priori* question, for example, if a decision was required as to who should receive some scientific prize awarded by an endowment in recognition of a certain kind of scientific research.

However, the lack of objectivity and exactness of the standard by means of which it is desired, as regards every intellectual creation, to differentiate and separate pure discovery from other forms of mental activity, is shown by the following simple observation: among the English jurists we note a marked tendency to minimise the value not only of discovery but of invention itself as compared with works of art; and as regards the latter, precisely on the ground that invention also lacks the character of true creation. One of the most competent of these jurists, Frost (*Law and Practice relating to Letters Patents*, London, 1906, Vol. II, Chap. 3), writes that the author of a literary work possesses a moral and natural right to his work from the very fact that it is his creation; that his right is equivalent to that of the man who produces a material object by the work of his hands; that, consequently, this right exists independently of any concession from society; but that it had to be created by legislation because it did not exist in common law. The inventor, on the other hand, does not create in the same manner as the author, therefore he possesses no natural or moral right to his work. "In the case of the author", says Frost, "the result of the work only begins to exist when the author puts his thoughts upon paper; in the case of an invention, as the law understands it, the inventor only utilises natural laws, pre-existent, although perhaps hitherto unknown; by applying them in accordance with new principles, he produces a result which no one until then had yet obtained. The difference between the production of great literary works and the discovery of great inventions is rendered evident when one compares one of Shakespeare's plays, "Hamlet" for example, with one of the inventions which have transformed the world — like Watt's steam-engine. If Shakespeare had not written "Hamlet", it is certain that this work would never have existed, and the literature of the world would have been the poorer thereby; but it is difficult to think that, if Watt had never lived, the improvements which he made in the steam-engine would for long have escaped the penetration of other mechanicians. This is why the law only concedes to the inventor a temporary conditional right, and that solely because he makes his invention known to the public and is the first to divulge it; for the same reasons, the law concedes this right to the first inventor as well as to the first importer¹."

But the English doctrine has its counterpart, one might even say its antithesis, among the Germans. Thus, M. Du Bois-Reymond (page 65), as we have seen, denies all creative character to invention, reserving it to works of art or literature. The Russian writer, M. Pilenko, whose remarkable work we have already quoted (page 223 et seq.), goes much further. He begins by observing that in life, and especially in the life of the mind, there is *finding* and *finding*. The discovery of a plant, of a continent, or, again, of a work of art which has strayed into some gallery, are quite different things.

¹ Quotation translated from French text translation.

In short, he finishes by proposing the following classification:



We shall be careful not to make any commentary upon these theories; and shall confine ourselves to pointing out that, in the opinion of a specialist like M. Pilenko, science ought to be put on the same footing as art and industry.

Nor has this idea been devoid of consequences, to judge by what has been written very recently by another specialist of great repute, M. Osterrieth (*Das Geistliche Schaffen in Wissenschaft, Technik und Kunst; in Gewerblicher Rechtsschutz und Urheberrecht*, XXVIII year, 1923, No. 3, page 49 et seq.). This author, who formerly inclined perhaps a little too much to the side of Kohler in that he also denied creative character to discovery (*Lehrbuch*, p. 62), to-day admits that, even in scientific research, there is an element of personal creation "ein persönliches, schöpferisches Moment", and points to the protection of the creative personality "die schöpferische Persönlichkeit" as the supreme object of the recognition of so-called intellectual property.

To sum up, we have alluded above to the quicksands of this theory; but everyone can henceforth perceive the uncertainty which it presents in practical application. The whole question is dominated by — the terms are not too strong — crudest utilitarianism, empiricism unhappily disguised in scientific nebulosity, and, finally, the most disconcerting arbitrariness.

However, we shall rely unhesitatingly and without scruple upon the common feeling of justice, that profound and infallible feeling which tells us that here is a wrong which must be righted.

SECOND PART. — PROPOSALS.

§ 7. — HISTORICAL RETROSPECT.

The question of the protection of scientific work has, like all other questions, been raised in the past, but on rare occasions and with insignificant results.

At the Congress of the International Literary and Artistic Association, held in London in 1879, Dr. Déclat, a solitary doctor who had, as it were, strayed into the company of men of letters, timidly asked the Congress "also to take measures to protect invention or discovery, whether of a method, a preparation or a substance, which might assist humanity in protecting itself against epidemics and in curing serious diseases. He wished, at least, that this question might be included in the agenda of the next Congress". M. Edmond About protested against the introduction of this subject into the work of the Congress. M. Jules Clère insisted that the Conference should proceed with its agenda. The unfortunate man of science, who had been so bold as to trouble the pure waters of literature, was obliged to hold his tongue as being a simple.... unlettered person.

It was only at a much later date, at the Congress held at Venice on September 22nd, 1888, that M. Jules Oppert, a German resident in Paris, remarked that the Association had been constantly occupied at its meetings with the protection of the works of men of letters, but that, side by side with these works, there were also works of men of science which were equally worthy of protection, and he requested the Congress to take in hand protection of scientific works from the same point of view as that of literary works, in such a way that there should be no distinction between them. M. Pouillet, at that time vice-president of the Association, thereupon expressed regret that M. Oppert had not submitted his recommendation during one of the meetings of the Committee, in order that a proposal might have been formulated and submitted to the Congress, and he declared that this proposal should be submitted to the Committee of Enquiry, with a view to its inclusion in the agenda of a subsequent Congress.

But the question was not brought forward, nor was it raised at any Congress until 1896, when, at Berne, there was a discussion of a draft law regarding author's rights, and M. Davanne proposed to substitute the words "œuvres intellectuelles" for the words "littéraires et artistiques", and to add scientific works to the category. M. Davanne proposed "that scientific works should be specified in order that they might be protected, even if they had not appeared in a literary form". Moreover, he would prefer the word "intellectuelles". M. Desjardins supported the proposal of M. Davanne and expressed the wish to see the term "œuvre intellectuelle" authoritatively adopted in France. M. Maillart proposed to refer to the Monaco Congress the enquiry into the protection of scientific works. He conceded, however, that the author of a scientific discovery should, in default of a monopoly, have the right to prevent a third party from claiming for himself the honour of such discovery.

Nevertheless, the question of the protection of scientific works was not included in the agenda of the Monaco Congress, nor did it appear on the agenda until the Congress of Turin in 1898, twenty years after the proposal had first been put forward by M. Déclat. The Congress expressed, in a general recommendation, its wish that all works of the intellect which were at the time outside the protection of the law should be placed on a footing of equality with literary and artistic works.

The Italian architect, Pesce, Technical Counsellor at the Italian Embassy at Paris, succeeded in inducing the members of the Congress held at Heidelberg, in 1899, to include in the agenda of future congresses the question of the protection of scientific works.

M. Pesce also laid before the Congress of Weimar in 1903 a report on scientific property, regarded almost exclusively from the point of view of civil engineering and architecture. At the same Congress, M. Vannois, a Paris lawyer, dealt with the protection of historical and critical works. He observed in his report that no protection was accorded to the historian who conducts researches in order to bring to light an unknown truth; to the critic who discovers an author of bygone times; to the man of learning who reconstructs a text which has been falsified, or to the scholar who deciphers the enigmatic inscription of an extinct nation, or translates ancient inscriptions written in unknown tongues. Such men are almost invariably despoiled of the fruits of their labour, and even their names are not always quoted. M. Vannois, however, came to no conclusion as to the manner in which this protection should be exercised, and confined himself to declaring that it was necessary to specify clearly all the various emanations of the personality of the author, so that this personality might be protected in all its manifestations. Professor Osterrieth, of Berlin, also referred to this problem in the report submitted to the Congress in question, but the work was negative in tendency, nor did he disguise his fear that injury might be done to scientific studies. He made an exception in favour of authors who published what is called the *editio princeps* of a text which is little known, or entirely unknown. In order to prevent the onerous work of the man of science, or the heavy expense incurred by the publisher, from being exploited by others, he proposed that protection should be accorded during a limited period of ten years, during which the *editio princeps* should be considered as constituting the publication of a new work.

The International Congress of Inventors' Associations, held at Paris in 1900, adopted the following resolution:

"Whereas men of science are continually being deprived of the fruit of their discoveries and inventions by more or less close imitations of their works, which are not at present subject to any penalty, the Congress adopts the following recommendation:— That men of science should be protected by formal and effective legal provisions against the piracy to which they are constantly exposed and which is prejudicial to their most valuable possession, namely, their reputation, in that they are deprived of their rights of authorship in a work of discovery or a principle in respect of which they can acquire no patent, and which does not bear the obvious stamp of personal authorship, but in regard to which they can demonstrate that they are creators or inventors by virtue of a special deposition to that effect, or by virtue of a publication or academic communication prior to the act of those who have deliberately or innocently plagiarised it."

It is obvious that the question had not hitherto advanced beyond the stage of simple recommendation.

It must therefore, in justice, be admitted that France was the first to take the great step in advance; it was in France that bills were first introduced with a view to securing such protection for scientific property as should place it on an equality with literary and artistic or industrial property.

Two draft laws were in fact laid before the Chamber of Deputies. One of these was prepared by the Confédération des Travailleurs Intellectuels, and its history and purpose are set forth in a treatise entitled *La propriété scientifique: le Projet de la C. T. I.: Création d'un droit d'auteur pour le savant et l'inventeur*, par MM. R. Dalimier et L. Gallié (rapporteurs of the bill; preface by M. E. Borel, Academy of Sciences, Paris; Rousseau, 1923. The other law was prepared by the Union des Syndicats d'Ingénieurs français, which had requested M. Joseph Barthélemy, Professor and Deputy for Gers, to introduce a bill. The history and subject of M. Barthélemy's bill are set forth in the following official publication: *Proposition de loi sur la propriété scientifique et la réforme de la loi du 5 juillet 1844, sur les brevets d'invention*, Chamber of Deputies, 12th Legislature, Session of 1922, annex to the Minutes of April 4th, 1922.

No similar steps appear to have been taken in other countries.

§ 8. NATIONAL LAW, OR INTERNATIONAL CONVENTION ?

When the above-mentioned proposals, drafted with a view to the preparation of a law for the protection of scientific work, became known in France, they immediately encountered the following objection, which was raised by persons of authority interested in the question (see *Propriété industrielle*, 1922, page 23): "Except by means of an International Conference at which all great civilised countries are represented, it would be impossible to contemplate any further restriction of the freedom of business transactions without placing France in a position of being able to offer the least resistance in economic competition". The same opinion has been expressed by an expert, M. Fernand-Jacq, author of a book on patents (*Manuel pratique de la propriété industrielle et commerciale*, Paris, 1914), who, in two articles ("Le droit de suite des inventeurs sur leurs découvertes, in the *Journal des Economistes*, 1922, page 332 et seq., and *La propriété scientifique*, in the *Revue Générale de l'Electricité*, 1923, page 463 et seq.), claims that the question should at least be submitted to an international conference. Let us state at once that this fear appears to us to be exaggerated, as would be the fear that free trade would ruin the commerce of a nation,

or that the lowering of transport rates would be prejudicial to public finance, etc. When the Factory Acts in England first limited the working hours of women and children, the great English cotton industry was loud in its complaints, whereas, in actual fact, the Acts proved to be of great advantage to the industrialists. In any case, the harm done to industry would be only temporary in character, and would be largely compensated by the advantages which would ensue from the adoption of this proposal; for it is a fact that the increase in the number of patents in any country has always been followed by an industrial revival.

The same results would follow from the protection of science. Industry draws its sustenance from science and will continue to do so, but with this difference — as has been ironically and justly observed by M. Dalimier and M. Gallié in their Report — that men of science will be eliminated from the menu!

We think, however, that remarks made in France by persons of such great authority are worthy of attention, since they constitute an important psychological factor and may form an insurmountable obstacle to the innovations which we are advocating and to the propaganda which we are pursuing; this is all the more true because the method advocated by these authors appears to us to be the one which should be adopted, although for reasons different from those which they themselves put forward.

Those who have taken the initiative in France in the movement for protecting the rights of men of science have recognised the necessity of completing their work by appealing for the support of all nations. Professor Borel, the eminent President of the *Confédération des Travailleurs Intellectuels*, who wrote (see “*La propriété scientifique*” in the *Revue de Paris*, 1923, page 853) that the Association itself “had not failed to realise that, in a matter of this kind, it was not sufficient for one nation to take the initiative. It was only by means of an international understanding that effective action could be taken”.

We must note that the method proposed in France by both parties (as we have already seen) was opposed by the combined International Bureaux of Industrial, Literary, and Artistic Property of Berne (*Bureaux Internationaux Réunis de la propriété industrielle, littéraire et artistique de Berne*), the organisation best qualified to deal with the subject. Their report, submitted to our Committee and drawn up by Professor Ernest Röthlisberger, director of the combined Bureaux (see *Le droit d'auteur*, 1923, p. 5 et seq.), contains the following noteworthy observations: “Progress in this direction has hitherto never been effected directly through international channels. Reform has been preceded in every country by experiment and trial. Obstacles are first removed within a limited sphere; the example is next followed elsewhere, and finally, the reform is adopted in international relations”. The *droit de suite* (continuation rights), adopted in France and Belgium in regard to artists, should first be tried in both these countries and be recommended by private associations before there can be any question of incorporating them in the form of an article in an International Convention. Evolution is, in this respect, extremely slow. Violence must not be done to the spirit of time: such is the wise rule of international life. For every reform there comes — whether it be sooner or later — the propitious moment which must be turned to good account. This rule will also hold good in regard to the transformation of ideas on the subject of scientific property”.

We are further faced with the following problem: should the route before us lie from national law to international convention, or in the inverse direction?

For our own part, although recognising the high value and wisdom of the recommendations of the International Bureaux of Berne, we cannot fail, in the first place, to note that the example which they cite, viz., the French law regarding the *droit de suite*, does not appear to us conclusive. A right of this kind may very well exist in a single country without placing it in a position of economic inferiority in regard to other countries. At most, art dealers might be affected, but the fate of this industry would have no influence whatever on the national balance of trade; and the fact that their profits might possibly decrease would be amply compensated for by the advantages which accrue from the law in question both for artists and for the arts. Quite different, however, would be the case of a scientific discovery protected only in a single country; a circumstance of this kind might place the sound and non-parasitical industries of the country in a position of inferiority which, even were it temporary, as we have said, would need to be considered.

Nor does it appear to us that the Bureaux have taken sufficient account of one decisive fact. The protection of literary and artistic property and of industrial property has, by the very necessity of the case, been undertaken by each country independently, because they were all at the time in a position of almost complete isolation. With whom could England in the seventeenth century, or France at the time of the Revolution, have come to an understanding when they drafted their first and celebrated laws on this question? All that can be said is that their example was followed later on by other nations. Circumstances are very different at the present time, for an organisation has already been established which comprises the majority of the States of the world; we refer to the League of Nations. And it would be a fatal mistake to think that the activities of this organisation were entirely absorbed and exhausted by political questions.

Moreover, the tendency of the subject with which we are concerned is very strongly in the direction of internationalism. Is not the continued existence and the extension of activities of the International Bureaux a striking proof of this fact? Kohler, an author whom we have already quoted several times, observed that in no other field, except the international field, could comparative law lead to a systematic unification of national laws in regard to authors' rights which are on the verge of becoming universal rights “*ein Weltrecht*”. At the Congress of Vienna in 1873 and at Nancy in 1909, the International Association for the Protection of Industrial Property submitted a recommendation that national law in regard to patents should be unified. No less earnest recommendations were formulated in regard to the institution of a universal *patent-trade-mark and of an international inventors' patent*.

The International Association of Industrial Property, at its Congress at Zurich in 1899, noted with satisfaction the ratification of the Hague Convention, and decided that an enquiry should be undertaken into the question of regulating international jurisdiction in regard to industrial property. The International Congress of Industrial Property, which met at Paris in 1900, decided that it would be desirable to consider the question of instituting an international tribunal to give judgment in actions concerned with the revocation of trade-marks and with the counterfeiting of trade-marks.

In Belgium, initial steps were taken for the institution of an international system of justice in regard to industrial property; it was claimed, that such a system should be established by the Peace Conference. In the United States of America a society was founded which proposed "to submit to the Conferences which were concerned with the establishment of Peace and with the constitution of a League of Nations, all questions relating to treaties concluded, or to be concluded, in regard to patents and other rights". Finally, the Genoa Conference (April to May 1922) also concerned itself with the protection of literary and artistic property and recommended that, in the first place, all European States, and subsequently all non-European States, should adhere to the International Conventions as already concluded.

Finally, it is evident from the foregoing sketch that the centre of gravity of the system of protection of the rights in question is rapidly shifting, and is passing from a national to an international stage, that is to say, as regards individual nations Members of the League of Nations.

"One more remark may be made which concerns our Committee more directly, but which, in our opinion, does not admit of question. Our task has been entrusted to us by the League of Nations, and not by a single State, or by several individual States; we ought, therefore, to adopt the standpoint of the Authority on behalf of which we are acting, and we should adhere to their point of view. It is easily intelligible that the French proposals, as specified above, should have taken French law for their basis, and should have suggested modifications of this law; but so far as we are concerned, what laws should we take as a foundation for our work? If we take our stand on the laws of the principal States should we not end by producing a work which would be analytical, disjointed and confused, a work which would be more in the nature of legal casuistry than of genuine reconstruction? Should we not be acting ill-advisedly if we were to undertake the criticism of the laws of any special country, and should we not run a risk of alienating the public opinion (which is always sensitive) in the country in question? We must also take account of the fact that the inverse process would inevitably raise the question of the different provisions in force in different States, a question which is at all times a stumbling-block and source of perplexity in international conventions. This point can easily be demonstrated from the example of the Conventions of Berne and Paris, to which we have already referred, and from the articles which have been added to them from time to time.

§ 9. HOW IS THE SCIENTIST TO BE REWARDED?

When referring to the right of the scientist to receive a reward for his intellectual work, we have hitherto confined ourselves to the formal side of the problem, or, we might almost say, the mere question of procedure. We have now to consider the root problem: what should be the nature of this reward?

While our Committee was in session, M. de Torres Quevedo, a colleague possessing exceptional experience of the subject by reason of the particular branch of science to which he so successfully devotes his energies, submitted to the Committee a proposal, the most important part of which reads as follows:

"It is desired to establish the rights of persons who have communicated an idea, subsequently embodied in the specification of a patent, to obtain a share in the profits obtained through that patent, and also to assure the participation of national laboratories in the profits which they have generally had a large share in producing. It is desired to attain this object while causing no harm, or, at any rate, the least possible harm, to the interests of persons who take out such patents and who are very often the authors of a considerable part of the invention, and have always run financial risk. In order to facilitate an understanding with these persons, a charge will be fixed (for instance, 30 % of the profits), to be paid by them if necessary, and they will receive in exchange certain advantages, such as a considerable reduction in the charges made for granting a patent, the abolition of the requirement that the patent shall be exploited, and so on. They will, in short, be released from certain payments and obligations which are most unwelcome at the time when they are beginning to develop their inventions, on the sole condition that they shall pay a royalty, the amount of which is fixed in advance, when they commence to obtain profits. They will be able to establish their business without any difficulty or fear of legal action. The 30 % levied on the profits will be divided between the laboratories and the authors of the ideas utilised in the patents, in a proportion fixed by a tribunal of experts. It may be possible to fix a *minimum* sum payable to the laboratories; but, in any case, the experts will have to fix the portion due to each of the persons laying claim to the authorship of an idea. The remainder will go to the laboratories. If an invention begins to become productive before these questions are settled, 30 % of the profits, or that portion of the 30 % of which the destination is still unknown, shall be paid into the Exchequer with a view to its being distributed later. The controversies between the intellectual workers and the laboratories will be less bitter than those which take place with the owners of the patents, will not hinder the development of the enterprise, and, in any case, will never lead to the total spoliation of some distinguished scientist."

Subsequently, our Committee learned that the International Bureaux in Berne were also engaged in drawing up a scheme, the provisions and constituent features of which will appear in the September and October 1923 numbers of the review *Le Droit d'auteur*. Through the great courtesy of Professor Ernest R  thlisberger, Director of the United Bureaux, and Professor Galier, Sub-Director of the same Bureaux, who drew up the scheme, we have been informed in advance of its main characteristics.

"The scheme is conceived on the same lines as that of M. de Torres Quevedo. Starting from the idea that the right of the scientific worker to his discovery cannot be regarded as an absolute right, and is therefore comparable in every respect with the right of the author of an artistic or literary work, and not with the right of an inventor, Professor Galier draws the conclusion that the remuneration of the man of science must also be on a different plane. It should take the form of a reward paid out of a fund formed from subscriptions paid by, or contributions levied on, the industries profiting by the discovery. The share of the reward allocated to each of the men of science who have contributed to the discovery will be determined by a commission, on which the industrial representatives most directly concerned, and consequently best able to judge, will be in a majority. The scheme elaborated by the Bureaux, which has been conceived and drawn up from a purely national point of view, might also be adapted to conform to international requirements and relations by means of a standard law which would be submitted to States adhering."

The above is a very concise and perhaps not entirely correct summary of the viewpoint adopted by the Bureaux.

We should be grateful for the fact that the question has been approached from a standpoint other than our own. The difficulties are so formidable that we can hardly hope to overcome them unless we attack them from every side.

But, having said this, we must now in turn state our opinion that the system proposed by M. de Torres Quevedo and M. Galier seems acceptable only in part. That is to say, we consider it should be adopted only by way of exception in cases in which it is not possible to assign, in any other way, a true remuneration for scientific work accomplished. The rule should be, as far as possible, payment in proportion to the profits earned from the application of the discovery to industry. And this for the following reasons:

First, one historical reference. The idea of allotting a reward in the form of a lump sum—we might almost say, in lieu of all further claims—to the scientist who may have contributed in any way to the formation of an industrial product is not a new one. It was advanced, advocated and even warmly defended at the time of the great controversy on patents to which we have referred chapter 4. Its warmest advocates were those who wished to make a clean sweep of patents. Michel Chevalier, in his letter condemning patents, to which reference has been made in the chapter mentioned, and M. Malapert, a patents expert, author of a brochure in which he, too, advocates the abolition of patents, were unable to deny that the inventor is useful to society and renders it services, but took this very fact as a starting-point for their proposal to substitute for existing legislation a system of rewards, either on a *national* or a *European* basis. But the most tenacious advocate of this idea was an Englishman, Mr. Macfie, who carried on for many years an indefatigable campaign, both at meetings of experts and in technical publications, for the replacement of patents by rewards. M. Vigaros pleaded in a brochure for the institution of an *Industrial Order of Merit* for inventors. We have seen, too, that Mazzini dreamed of a well-ordered republic in which the impecunious man of science should receive aid and encouragement from the State.

The origin of the idea, coming as it does from persons who were absolutely opposed to any kind of right over productions of the human intelligence, should suffice, we think, to put us on our guard. It may be said that the idea from its very birth has been sullied by a lack of consideration for men of science; that it seeks to dispose of their pretensions in as speedy and summary a manner as possible by granting them a dole, just as merry-makers hasten to give alms to an importunate beggar in order that they may be well rid of him!

As regards the practical or technical side of the system of prizes—for it is really a system of prizes which is proposed—we may refer the reader to the severe criticism to which it has been subjected by so competent an authority as M. Pilenko (*Das Recht der Erfinders*, p. 15). We ourselves will do no more than point out that the proposed system destroys all bonds between the creator and his creation and breaks the contact between the man and his work at the very time at which it is being sought, by means of "moral law" and the "law of consecution (*droit de suite*)"; etc., to strengthen these relations in every other sphere of intellectual property; so much so that in this connection we feel that we are proceeding in a direction contrary to all legal and even social progress. Is not patronage, even though it be of an impersonal and national character, a form of remuneration which has become obsolete even in the domain of art?

In short, present-day opinion has veered away from the system of prizes granted in lieu of all claims towards that of premiums proportionate to the services rendered. This is the more modern and also the more honourable conception.

However, we should not entirely disdain the system of prizes in cases in which it is not possible to establish some direct and sure relationship between the idea and its economic productivity, between the scientific work and its practical utility, between the discovery and its application to industry. Such a situation may occur by reason of the general character of the science involved (higher mathematics, for example), or by reason of the special character of the scientific discovery. In such cases scientific research renders service not to any one particular industry but to society as a whole, by assisting the progress of the various sciences by which industry will only profit indirectly, that is to say, by the stimulus which this progress will give to discoveries of more immediate practical utility.

In the above case it is clearly not for industry to reward the man of science, either under the system of a fiscal character proposed by M. de Torres Quevedo, which would prove rather too

unwieldy in practice, or under the system proposed by M. Galier, concerning which we cannot express an adequate opinion, because we are too imperfectly acquainted with its internal mechanism. It is for society, that is to say, the State, to recompense the scientist. But how?

Incidentally, it seems to us that two principles must be laid down, namely:

Above all, a *special* fund must be created. The principle of *special character*, that is to say, of the qualitative co-relationship between the source of the revenue and the category of persons among whom this revenue is distributed, is paramount in the financial law of every modern State. We do not think that we can quote any example better calculated to bring out the *special* character of this fund than the way in which it has been formed by means of a system named, and perhaps somewhat inadequately named, in France the *domaine public payant* (cf., for instance, the brilliant contribution to the subject by M. Marcel Plaisant, *La Création artistique et littéraire et le droit*, Paris, 1920, p. 40 et seq.) The system is based on the supposition that the discovery, etc., after becoming public property, remains subject to a very small charge levied on behalf of the State. We do not see why the same principle, with such modifications as may be required, should not be applied to patents as they expire. The State would in this way obtain its funds from that general category of the community among which they would eventually be redistributed.

Secondly, we must eliminate from such distribution any suggestion of almsgiving, if such an expression may be used. The State should earmark this revenue either for public or private institutions for the advancement of science and the encouragement of scientists or for the scientific and technical groups which are best qualified, and so on.

As we have said, we only wish to refer to this matter incidentally, for we consider that all such questions should be left open for each nation to decide in accordance with its own laws. The precedent of the Nobel prizes may be quoted in opposition to this thesis, but the Nobel prizes are a private foundation, and, moreover, everybody knows that they are awarded by an institution of a purely national character. We do not wish to deny that later something of the kind may be accomplished internationally. But we think that it would be wiser for the present to wait and see what experience may have to teach us in the light of private experiments carried out in separate countries.

§ 10. PATENT RIGHTS OR AUTHORS' RIGHTS?

Let us now retrace our steps. The principles which we have attempted to lay down in the preceding paragraphs lead us straight to the historical Conventions of Paris and Berne. For these two Conventions are of a twofold nature: first, their action is international (see § 8); and secondly, they mention *property* (Paris Convention) or *rights* (Berne Convention), but never *prizes* or anything of a similar nature (see § 9).

But even if we admit that we must take these Conventions as a starting-point, we have only solved one-half of the problem. Which of the two Conventions are we to choose, the Paris Convention of 1883 for the Protection of Intellectual Property or that of Berne (1886) for the Protection of Artistic and Literary Property? In other words, should we take as our starting-point the system of protecting inventions by means of patents, or the system for protecting authors' rights? The problem is obviously one of paramount importance. We have already stated the aspects of the problem in § 3.

The authors of the French schemes were faced with the same alternative, and since these two schemes constitute, as we have pointed out, the only concrete efforts hitherto made to solve the question, we shall doubtless derive considerable profit from a careful study of the solutions they propose. The alternative presented itself to the authors of the French scheme in the following form: they had either to base their project on the important Law of July 19th, 1793, and on the subsequent laws supplementary thereto, that is to say, on the French fundamental law relative to artistic and literary property, or they had to take the Law of July 5th, 1844, concerning patents as their basis.

The Union of Syndicates of French Engineers, which is affiliated to the Industrial Technical Experts Section of the Confederation of Intellectual Workers, were at first — that is to say, in 1921 — in favour of reconstructing the inadequate Law of 1844, in which they proposed to make certain basic and logical modifications. The Union had requested M. Joseph Barthélemy to submit a draft law to this effect. It was quite natural that a suggestion emanating from an association of industrial technical experts should lead to the drafting of a *patents* law, and this consideration was the principal reason which led the Deputy Barthélemy to give his bill the definite character which is implied in its title, referred to at the end of chapter 7.

Meanwhile, the Liberal Professions Section of the Confederation of Intellectual Workers, submitted a memorandum by Dr. Dalimier to the Governing Committee of the Confederation. The conclusion drawn by the author was that a system of *authors' rights* should be instituted for biological inventions and that the patents law should not in any way be extended to include such inventions. The Governing Committee appointed a special commission of savants, engineers, biologists and jurists to examine the two schemes. The suggestions submitted by the Liberal Professions Section were preferred, and the Governing Committee of the Confederation of Intellectual Workers unanimously adopted the Commission's report embodying this decision. Dr. Dalimier and M. Gallié, advocate, who had been entrusted with drawing up the report, transmitted the text to the Chamber of Deputies and the League of Nations. The very title of the draft, which we have mentioned at the end of chapter 7, shows that it is opposite in character to the preceding scheme.

But at this juncture there occurred almost automatically a kind of transfusion of the peculiar features of the two laws.

Indeed, a careful consideration of the case leads to the conclusions, that the persons who intended to take the Law of 1844 as their starting-point eventually came under the influence of the Law of 1793; while, on the other hand, the Law of 1844 could not fail to modify the standpoint of those who had intended to draw their inspiration solely from the law of 1793.

Let us examine Article 1 of the bill drawn up by the Confederation of Intellectual Workers. It reads as follows: "The authors of scientific discoveries or inventions shall, during their lifetime, enjoy the exclusive right of deriving profit therefrom." Article 2 of the same draft goes on to speak not only of scientific discoveries and inventions but of "all new applications of such discoveries and inventions".

Let us now read Article 1 of the Law of 1793 and Article 1 of the Law of 1844.

1793: "Authors of literary works of every kind, composers of music, painters and designers shall enjoy, during their whole lifetime, an exclusive right of selling, causing to be sold or distributing their works, etc."

1844: "Every new discovery or invention (*in all branches of industry*) shall confer on its author, on the conditions and for the period hereinafter stated, the exclusive right of exploiting such discovery or invention for his own advantage."

There is no need for us to point out at further length that, although the draft of the Confederation of Intellectual Workers is inspired by the text of 1793 as regards the very important and characteristic question of the period for which the rights are to be enjoyed, it presents in other respects far greater analogies with the text of 1844. In other words, if the Confederation of Intellectual Workers had been only authorised to express its views by omitting sentences or articles in already existing laws it could have attained its object more speedily by working on the law of 1844; that is to say, by suppressing in Article 1 of this law the words which we have placed in brackets, and by omitting Article 30, which we have quoted in paragraph 5. If it had taken the Law of 1793 as its basis, it would virtually have had to recast the whole text.

Moreover, although M. Barthélemy closely followed the law of 1844 in his draft, he was obliged to depart from its text, when he came to the most essential point, in order to embody a principle contained in the Law of 1793.

In Article 5 of his draft it is laid down that "scientific property, whether constituted by patent or not, shall endure during the lifetime of the author and 50 years after his decease". It should be noted that the Law of 1844 only gives protection for a maximum period of 15 years, whereas the Law of 1793, in conjunction with the Law of July 14th, 1866, concerning authors' rights, fixed the period for the whole lifetime of the author, plus a period of 50 years after his death. Moreover, not only in French legislation, but in all legislation, the varying length of the period fixed for protection is regarded not as a mere *accidens* but as an *essentiale negotii*, that is to say, a characteristic and distinctive element of the two forms of property rights — artistic and literary on the one hand and industrial on the other — and far the most important and decisive consideration.

This example is of sufficient weight to entitle us to conclude that the opinion which we advanced in paragraph 3, concerning the character of scientific property, which constitutes, so to speak, a sphere midway between the domain of artistic and literary property on the one hand, and industrial property on the other, is the expression of a profound reality, that is to say, an immutable and objective truth. The rights of the man of science will be found to be connected in all their aspects either with authors' rights or with inventors' rights. This conclusion might obviously give rise to much theoretical discussion as to the character of these three classes of rights and the category in which they should be classed, or, if the reader prefers, as to the higher right which comprises them all. But we have deliberately held aloof from the theories and contrasts of legal dogmas, wishing to confine ourselves strictly to the field of our investigation.

However, in taking our stand in every respect on the question of facts, there are clearly two courses open to us — on the one hand, legislative unification, and, on the other, separation.

But until we attain our desire namely, that the laws concerning the production of the human mind should be unified, in accordance with a higher conception, which would include their every aspect, we must revert to existing laws, and utilise principles borrowed from both schools of thought. This means that we cannot simply combine the foregoing provisions in one single text, but that we must avail ourselves, on behalf of scientific property, of the data furnished by experience in protecting industrial, and artistic, and literary property in such respects as these two forms of property most nearly approach to scientific property. The result will be a third text, which will, it is true, possess characteristics in common with the two existing texts, but will notwithstanding be independent of them both.

All the foregoing arguments apply with greater force when we come to consider national, as apart from international, legislation. We say, "with greater force" because, in the international sphere, the difficulty of unifying or even modifying existing texts increases to a formidable extent in a progression which is no longer arithmetical but geometrical.

We do not deny that sooner or later a recasting of all international texts concerning intellectual property might lead to a revision and more rational systematisation of this complex question. Such a step would be of great practical utility. Such eminent experts as M. Picord (in *Revue de Droit International* III, p. 391, et seq.) and M. Pilenko (*Das Recht der Erfinders* p. 19) have emphasised what they call the clumsy and unsatisfactory way in which patents are granted, and the need for remedying this state of affairs.

If we wish to convince ourselves of the effects which such a recasting would produce, we have only to refer to the report which a Spanish expert, who has specially studied the question, has addressed to our Committee. He sums up in this report the ideas which he has developed

in further detail in a very valuable work published by him recently (*Algunas modificaciones necesarias en la vigente ley de propiedad industrial*, Madrid 1920). The most remarkable fact is, that he attempts to draw a clear line between scientific authors' rights and the patenting of inventions, and between the patenting of inventions and the purely industrial patent, that is to say the patent taken out by a person who is not the inventor (for instance, a patent taken out by a person who imports into a country a foreign patent, a procedure recognised as recently as the Spanish Law of 1902). It may be well however to quote, for reference, the ingenious classification which he proposes:

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|-------|--------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| I. Intellectual and scientific property: | Authors' rights. | | | | | |
| II. Industrial intellectual property | <table border="0"> <tr> <td rowspan="4">. . .</td> <td>{ Patents of inventions;</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ Patents of improvements;</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ Industrial models;</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ Industrial designs.</td> </tr> </table> | . . . | { Patents of inventions; | { Patents of improvements; | { Industrial models; | { Industrial designs. |
| . . . | { Patents of inventions; | | | | | |
| | { Patents of improvements; | | | | | |
| | { Industrial models; | | | | | |
| | { Industrial designs. | | | | | |
| III. Industrial and commercial property | <table border="0"> <tr> <td rowspan="4">{</td> <td>Industrial patents;</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Factory and trade-marks;</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Trade names;</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Trade catalogues.</td> </tr> </table> | { | Industrial patents; | Factory and trade-marks; | Trade names; | Trade catalogues. |
| { | Industrial patents; | | | | | |
| | Factory and trade-marks; | | | | | |
| | Trade names; | | | | | |
| | Trade catalogues. | | | | | |

Unfortunately, the time for this more rational classification has not yet arrived. Existing international conventions will therefore have to be considered as they stand and serve merely as guides, or as models invested with exceptional value as a result of many years' experience.

§ II. THE LINES THAT SHOULD BE FOLLOWED.

How are these various models to be brought into line? We must before all settle the exact boundaries of our field of action.

At the present time, industrial property is as, we have said, internationally protected by the Paris Convention of 1883, and the corresponding Union, to which have adhered 30 States representing roughly 700,000,000 inhabitants.

Artistic and literary property is protected by the Berne Convention of 1886, and the corresponding Union, to which 27 States, representing roughly 900,000,000 inhabitants, have adhered.

Certain States have adhered to both Unions (for instance, Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain, Switzerland, etc.); other States have adhered only to the industrial union (for instance, the United States of America); and, finally, a third group of States have adhered only to the literary union (for instance, Greece).

There are two further facts to be noted.

In South America there exist unions of lesser importance for the protection both of industrial property (for instance, the Pan-American Convention of Buenos Ayres of August 20th, 1910) and for the protection of artistic and literary property (for instance, the Pan-American Convention of Buenos Ayres of August 10th, 1910).

Moreover, unionist States, that is States which have adhered to the two European unions or at least to one of them, have concluded, as between themselves, a number of partial conventions. In most cases the sole object of these conventions has been to assure to the signatories reciprocally a more specific and immediate guarantee of both industrial and of artistic and literary property; but they have on each occasion produced unions on a smaller scale having the same objects as the two more important unions. An instance of this is the union founded under the Madrid agreement of 1891 concerning the suppression of false indications of origin, etc.

It will readily be seen that we have here a whole series of circles which are either excentric and separate (the South American Unions) or imperfectly super-imposed (European Unions), and which in every direction present points in common, as well as points which are peculiar to themselves.

Over these circles there has now been placed another, established by the League of Nations. It does not exactly unite the circles of the two European unions (for it includes neither Germany nor the United States of America), but it embraces a certain number of South-American States (Brazil, for example).

What path was the Committee of Intellectual Co-operation then to follow in the midst of this complicated labyrinth of Unions?

The following are the suggestions it has received from the most authoritative source. With infinite ingenuity, Professor Borel, President of the Confederation of Intellectual Workers, had considered all possible solutions of this difficult problem when he wrote in his article referred to above (page 855):

"It therefore appears essential for the Committee to succeed in stating the principle of scientific property in a form which the Assembly of the League of Nations can accept and can recommend to the various nations. I will not venture to express any opinion as to whether the Committee should merely make a declaration of principle, or whether it should, on the contrary, attempt to grapple with the question more closely and persuade the Assembly to adopt an international Convention comprising articles sufficiently precise to furnish a reply to the objections raised concerning the difficulty of applying these principles. Each of the two methods possesses evident advantages and disadvantages; it is one of the principal duties of the Committee to choose between these two methods or to discover a third."

It may be said that it was not for the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, but rather or the higher authorities of the League of Nations, to choose the path that should be followed. But unless the Committee was prepared to limit its activity to the mere expression of resolutions, and if it desired, on the contrary, to formulate concrete and practical proposals, it had to endeavour to adopt the methods and means most likely to enable it to attain its object. In other words, when confronted with the alternatives so clearly defined by M. Borel, we have unhesitatingly adhered to the second proposal. That is to say, we have attempted to draw up a draft international convention such as he desired. We will now describe the basic idea of this draft.

It appears, first of all, that one hypothesis must be entirely excluded, namely, that the League of Nations, after launching a Convention for the protection of scientific property and a corresponding union between its members, should propose to constitute at the Secretariat a bureau on the same lines as the two Bureaux, established for industrial property and for the protection of artistic and literary rights respectively, which have been shown to be indispensable for the effective working of the conventions and unions referred to above. There would be many disadvantages attendant upon a measure of this description:

- (a) It would give rise to a duplication of expenditure;
- (b) It would inevitably involve a conflict of jurisprudence in respect of questions which are closely connected and present points in common;
- (c) It would prevent the utilisation of the long technical experience acquired by the Berne Bureaux;
- (d) Lastly, it would constitute one more obstacle in the way of the desired unification of all the above-mentioned laws concerning the protection of property. In short, the League of Nations would certainly not be able to take the place of the Berne Bureaux in a work which the latter are already in a better position to carry out.

There is, however, another duty which cannot be undertaken by the Berne Bureaux, but which the League of Nations not only may, but, in view of its ideals, ought to assume, namely, the task of defending in the various countries this work of international solidarity. It will therefore be necessary to establish between these two institutions an intimate understanding and active collaboration which would inevitably be to the advantage of both. The Berne Bureaux have rightly pointed out, in a report addressed to us, how valuable would be the support of the League of Nations in assisting them to extend the scope of the two unions, as desired by the Genoa Conference. It should be noted that this declaration officially establishes a first connecting-link between these pre-war organisations and the various associations for establishing peace and union between nations.

In our opinion, therefore, the course that we should adopt is as follows:

The League of Nations should promote a Convention, and a corresponding union, for the protection of scientific property as between its members, whether the latter are already members of pre-existing unions or not. We have shown that it is not necessary for a State to participate in all the unions. The adherence to one of the Unions would naturally be the most direct path leading to adherence to the others, and would accordingly constitute a step in the direction of universality, which, as the Postal Union has shown, is no Utopian ideal.

When once the new union has been constituted, its practical working would be entrusted, under the supervision of the League of Nations, to the Berne Bureaux, on the basis of an agreement to be concluded with the Swiss Government.

Moreover, the States which have not yet adhered or been admitted to the League of Nations should not be prevented from becoming members of the new union. This provision might perhaps do more than any other to bring about that real universality of the League of Nations which we must all desire and which is, we believe, an essential condition of its future existence.

It is scarcely necessary to add that States participating in the convention for the protection of scientific property and adhering to the corresponding union would be bound in consequence to modify their internal legislation in order to make it conform to the principles laid down in the convention. In order to render this task easier for the various countries and to ensure some fundamental co-ordination, M. Borel has proposed, and the Berne Bureaux are, it seems, engaged in drafting, a standard type of law. The idea appears to us excellent, but we do not think that we need consider it for the present, as our task is already sufficiently onerous.

§ 12. DIFFICULTIES.

An international Convention is a ponderous mechanism which is by no means easy to set in motion. We would be grossly deceiving ourselves were we to imagine that the path which we have indicated was not beset with difficulties of every kind. Perhaps we shall be called dreamers. It may even be said that it was presumption on our part to undertake such an enterprise.

We may venture to recall, however, the still humbler origins of the elder sisters of the enterprise we desire to see accomplished; and particularly the origins of that Berne Convention, whose twenty-fifth anniversary of beneficent and distinguished service was so enthusiastically celebrated on the eve of the outbreak of war (see Röthlisberger, "The Twenty-fifth Anniversary of the Berne Convention of September 9th, 1886", in *Le Droit d'Auteur*, 1911, p. 116 et seq., p. 119 et seq.).

The following reminiscences of the Berne Congress of 1882 of the International Artistic and Literary Association were related to us by its secretary, M. Jules Lermina: "One morning in May 1882, three members of the Association met unpretentiously in a *trattoria* at the foot of the

Capitol. In the course of the conversation, the idea was suggested that it might not be impossible to bring about the conclusion of an international Convention recognising the rights of authors, on the lines of the existing Conventions on Coinage and on Posts. And forthwith it was decided to set to work. Who would have imagined that a diplomatic instrument of such importance could originate in a conversation in a café ... or in a *trattoria* ? But none the less, it did, for I was there when it happened." One might be tempted to think that Rome's eternal genius for jurisprudence and her incomparable talent for organisation were still immanent even in that humble *trattoria* at the foot of the Capitol. At this Rome Congress, M. Carlo del Balzo formulated the following proposal: "The Congress recommends that the Italian Government should take the initiative and enter into negotiations with the other Governments with a view to formulating a scheme for the *unification of legislation* dealing with literary property". M. Frederic Bätzmänn, a Norwegian, recommended the Congress to fix Berne, "the international city *par excellence*" as the meeting-place of the Conference which it was proposed to hold for this purpose. And thus this noble task was entrusted to Switzerland. The result surpassed all expectations, and, as M. Edouard Clunet was able to state with justice. "The Convention of September 9th, 1886, constitutes one of the most important international acts of the century. In view of this un hoped-for result, its promoters perceive that the age when dreams come true has not yet passed." Which means that dreamers can sometimes render most effective aid to men of action.

The Convention was defined by M. Ulbach as "the great proclamation of union and concord in the realms of higher thought", and M. Numa Droz, who had presided at the Congress, said of it, in the remarkable speech which he made at Geneva on September 18th, 1886, that it had "created throughout the territory of the international union a right of citizenship which rendered authors the citizens of a great republic of arts and letters", and, speaking of the future, he said in conclusion: "Yes, it is because the union which we have just founded solemnly consecrates a principle of justice, and because it is a manifestation of human solidarity, that it must inevitably live and prosper".

We may venture to ask why "the great proclamation of concord and union" should not resound throughout all the realms of thought, and why the right of citizenship of the republic referred to by M. Droz should still be refused to men of science. To paraphrase his concluding words, we may say that, since the union which we desire also consecrates a principle of justice, and is also a manifestation of human solidarity, it ought to be born before it can live and prosper.

We do not deny, however, that we shall be faced with an obstacle which did not exist when the Berne Convention, and even the Paris Convention, were in process of preparation, and that this obstacle is by far the most difficult to surmount.

At that time, as M. Droz pointed out in the speech already quoted, the task to be accomplished was simply that of "taking the average of existing legislation and bringing the backward countries up to this level, without in any way obliging the others to retrograde or preventing anyone from progressing, in the direction of increased protection for the rights of authorship". In our case, on the other hand, we have to secure the acceptance by every legislation of a principle which they have hitherto excluded, either explicitly, or implicitly, or tacitly, but in every case in a very definite manner. A still greater difficulty will be to secure for the legal innovation which we propose the support of the great and complex world of magistrates and lawyers, who will naturally be inclined to seize the pretext of the smallest fault in its application to oppose us.

This danger was pointed out to us by Mr. John Wigmore, Professor of Law in the Northwestern University of Chicago — a man of extensive learning and legal experience — in his memorandum, which, among other merits, has that of not confining itself to criticism but of making extremely valuable suggestions. We attach great importance to them, as will be seen immediately, in view of the necessity of disarming the prejudices and apprehensions referred to.

We will therefore endeavour, with all our strength, to clear these purely technical and practical difficulties from the path of the League of Nations, whose humble and devoted servants we are. As regards the more important difficulties, we consider that, in spite of the inadequacy of our aid, nothing can stand in the way of the great Master on whom we depend if it is His will that this work should be accomplished, a work which, we feel convinced, would mark an epoch in the history of civilisation.

§ 13. GUIDING PRINCIPLES.

The main lines of the reform of the law as at present formulated with regard to intellectual property have been set forth with rare ability, great insight and an extraordinary wealth of well-chosen examples in the publications mentioned in this report, which were attached to the draft scheme of the Convention on Intellectual Work and to the scheme presented by M. Barthélemy. Although the authors of these publications express different opinions as to the solution of the problem, they are all in agreement when stating the terms of the problem itself. We therefore think that the two documents ought to be considered, especially in this respect, as annexes to the present report and as forming a part of our work.

I. The fundamental principle has been trenchantly expressed by M. Grignard, Member of the Institute, as follows: "It is time to break with the scandalous habit of considering scientific property as a public well from which everybody may draw at his discretion without owing anything to anyone. The genius and the work of the inventor are not natural riches open to all; they are intellectual capital, often acquired very slowly and at great cost; it is logical, it is moral that its possessor should be able to derive legitimate pecuniary advantages therefrom." One might even be surprised that a work of such evident justice has been so long delayed. Now, in the memo-

random by Mr. Wigmore quoted above, which we are reproducing as an annex to this report, there is an extraordinarily subtle observation which might in his opinion explain the historic and well, founded origin of the legislative limitations which up to the present have prevented the protection of scientific work, but which at the same time — so at least we think — proves the altogether indefensible nature of these limitations at the present time, that is to say, in view of the present conditions and scope of scientific research. For we attach still more importance to Mr. Wigmore's observation than perhaps he himself does.

But let me quote the words of the American scientist:

"If we cast our minds back over the history of scientific discovery, it will be apparent that the greatest part of the discoveries of science up to the last generation or two have consisted in discovering principles which explained obvious facts of human life. For example, Sir Isaac Newton's discovery of the law of gravitation was a revelation of the reason why water runs down hill and why, on the other hand, smoke ascends in the air. So also, the discovery of the scientific principle of combustion was an explanation and revelation of the secret of invisible reasons for that familiar phenomenon, fire, which has been concretely known to humanity ever since Prometheus committed his primordial sacrilege against the secret knowledge of the gods. But during the last generation or two, the rapid progress of science has gone beyond the explanation of the obvious practices of human activity and is now discovering principles of far-reaching importance that, once discovered, enable us to enter upon activities which the human mind had never been able to contemplate. For example, the discovery of radium has led to a hundred practical activities never before attempted in real life. So also the discovery of the so-called Hertzian waves has led to the use of a hundred varieties of wireless apparatus of communication. Thus it will be seen that, in these new conditions of scientific discovery, the principles of science thus discovered may and do constantly lead to novel activities which never before existed, and that this is perhaps one of the most marked features of modern science. This being so, a more enlightened humanity may well succeed in abolishing the restrictions to the patents law and in securing for the discoverer of such scientific principles the right to a share in the profits accruing from the application of such principles."

We shall revert presently to this passage in Mr. Wigmore's memorandum in order to appreciate to the full the deductions which he makes from his subtle observation. On the meantime, we may ask ourselves whether it would not be desirable to try to enlighten mankind upon a question of such great importance; it would then be able to efface much more quickly from its history this crime against justice, the gravity of which is shown in an even clearer light by Mr. Wigmore's observation.

II. A scientist, then, ought to reap the fruits of his intellectual labour.

The question is, in which of two ways: whether by acquiring the right to apply and to "exploit" his discovery himself, or by obtaining a share of the profits which others might derive from his idea.

The second of these two alternatives is the more probable. In fact, a scientist is generally lacking in the qualities necessary to undertake the exploitation of his own discoveries and the opportunity to do so only rarely presents itself. This is perhaps a dispensation of providence. For many subsequent discoveries of scientific truths would be lost to humanity if these conditions were to change. But such noble disinterestedness must not be allowed to the disadvantage of the man of science. It is incumbent upon the law to protect him, almost in spite of himself, as has lately been done in the case of artists. Something like a *droit de suite* to the idea born in the brain of a scientist must be instituted for his benefit; M. Lucien Klotz was the first, it would seem, who made a proposal to this effect and who defended his proposal in several French papers. A scientist must be granted a sort of royalty (*redevance*) on the money value which his discovery is likely to acquire by means of its practical application and its industrial utilisation, within a specified period of time.

III. It is important, therefore, that the unnatural, arbitrary and un-legal distinction referred to above (§ 5) which has been established between invention and discovery should be abandoned.

It should not be possible to read an apposition of names as singular as the one found, for example, in the work of Macomber (*The Fixed Law of Patents*, Boston, 1909, p. 45): on the one hand Bell, Westinghouse, Cowles, Acheson, in regard to whom it is considered perfectly just that they should be granted a financial reward proportionate to their genius; and on the other hand Franklin, Crookes, Koch, Mendeléeff, Kelvin, who are considered to be sufficiently rewarded by the fame accorded to them throughout the world.

But, as Mr. Wigmore has pointed out to us in the observation quoted above, a distinction must nevertheless be drawn between the different categories of discoveries, since discoveries are still being made at present which only furnish a scientific explanation of facts and processes already applied in industry or economic life in general and acquired merely by experience, or by intuition, that is to say, empirically. And to prove his point, he quotes two examples which are entirely convincing.

We had thought, in speaking in Article 5 of our Draft Scheme of a royalty due to the scientist on the application which might be given to his discovery, that we had implicitly excluded those discoveries which might be defined as practically sterile. But let us hasten to add that, since the article as drafted has not been sufficient to prevent Mr. Wigmore's observation, a special clause will be necessary.

It will then be understood that the authors of scientific discoveries which are, so to speak, purely retrospective or forestalled by practical experience may aspire only to one of the prizes of which we spoke in chapter 9.

IV. Furthermore, it is indispensable that all restrictions should be abolished in respect of the character of the intellectual product, whether it concerns physics, chemistry, biology or any

other science. In all these fields of science one could find only too many examples of discoveries the practical application of which could be guessed by no one at the time of their publication, and the utility of which has been suddenly revealed in a form most profitable to mankind.

An exception which is absolutely intolerable is that established by certain legislative systems (for example, the French, the Italian, etc.) with regard to medicaments, for the specious reason that in this field the interest of public health ought to prevail at any cost. This idea now appears so archaic, so devoid of foundation, that the Royal Italian Commission for the Reform of Industrial Property has unanimously proposed to abandon it.

M. Dalimier and M. Gallié have refuted this idea in an ingenious and decisive manner in their report, in which they say that: "This law unconditionally excludes therapeutists. No patents are possible for them; medicaments cannot be patented; no direct exploitation is possible; the sale of medicaments is the exclusive privilege of pharmacists. No partnership with a pharmacist is permitted; no matter in what form, such a partnership is forbidden. Nor is secrecy of invention permitted; the law prohibits secret remedies. Public health evidently has rights superior to the rights of individuals in this case. But what happens in practice? The scientist, sacrificed to the public interest, is robbed. By means of the clever device of the trade-mark or the registered name, the industrialist, at first godfather to the invention at its christening, becomes its father and owner and exploits it for his sole benefit. The only result this law has achieved is an unjust transfer of scientific property and an iniquitous transposition of profits; and public health is neither better nor less well protected in consequence; there is only one victim in the case, and that is not public health, but the scientist."

V. As concerns the protection of the rights of scientists, we consider it essential, first of all, to lay down the postulate which M. Barthélemy has clearly stated in the following words: "The right exists without the need of any formality to call it into being. This rule is merely the application of the common right of intellectual workers. The author of a work of art, of literature, of music, is the proprietor of his work by the sole fact that it is the child of his brain. No formality, no deposit, no declaration is required of him".

Scientists not only take no steps to obtain financial advantage from their discoveries but often refuse to accept any such advantage. It seems impossible to conceive of Pasteur or Kelvin taking steps to secure a patent. It is well known in Italy that Galileo Ferraris would not listen to a suggestion of pecuniary compensation, and quite recently, when Röntgen died, it was said that he had never sought to obtain any pecuniary advantage. Any number of similar examples might be quoted. It would appear, therefore, to be our duty to protect the families of savants against their excessive altruism.

Nevertheless, it is clear that all action in this respect must be based in the main on the provisions of the law concerning author's rights, which is the law most closely connected with and most in conformity with the dignity of the scientist's work.

Two differences, however, will immediately be noticed when the work of the artist and the writer, on the one hand, is compared with that of the scientist, on the other.

The first is that the exploitation of the right of an author over artistic and literary productions cannot be subjected to limitations on the part of the community, that is to say, the author's right of exploitation cannot be claimed by third parties in certain special cases, nor can he be expropriated in favour of the State. But it is obvious that both of the above situations may arise in connection with scientific discoveries, for the community must not be deprived of advantages accruing from the latter through mere negligence or refusal on the part of the author.

The second difference is the following: the essential conditions for granting a right of ownership are, in both cases, whether the artist or the scientist is concerned, *originality* and *priority*. But the relative importance of these two conditions is not the same in both instances; in the case of scientific discoveries, priority is much the more important. Therefore every care must be taken clearly to establish this essential point.

In view of these two differences, we must have regard mainly to the regulations which are already in force in respect of inventions in order to establish the principles which should govern scientists' rights.

VI. Four means are available for establishing the priority of an idea or a discovery:

1. The mere *publication* of the idea or the discovery, provided that the date of publication can be verified beyond all doubt. Thus the purely passive attitude of the scientist would be protected, and he would only be asked to collaborate to this minimum extent in the protection of his discovery. Obviously, no protection can be afforded to a discovery which is kept secret or is only known to a small group of persons.

Every kind of publicity, provided it is genuine, should be taken into account. A characteristic example has been quoted in this connection. Devesnes, who first noted the changes in the blood of animals suffering from anthrax, and whose work rendered it possible for Pasteur to make his wonderful discovery, merely published the details of his experiments in the *Bulletin Vétérinaire d'Eure-et-Loir*. Pasteur read this article, and, with the high sense of professional honour which he always displayed, did not hesitate to state that it was the source of his own discovery. But there are many different kinds of publicity, and its varying nature must necessarily lead to different results, even from a juridical point of view. Let us consider, for instance, the case in which a dispute as to priority arises between two scientists who have made the same discovery at different dates: if the second has at the same time effected, or caused to be effected, some practical and notifiable application of his discovery, the fact that little publicity was given to the earlier discovery must necessarily diminish its author's claims.

On the other hand, the right of the first scientist would be enhanced if his discovery had been published in the most authoritative periodicals, such as technical reviews, memoranda of acade-

mies or minutes of congresses. These organisations display a noteworthy tendency to become more and more international, and this fact renders them increasingly well suited for this particular function. As in biology the function creates the organ, so the importance of the conditions of publication in determining priority rights would certainly lead to the creation of new methods of publicity for this purpose, or would cause the existing reviews, memoranda and minutes to pay special attention to scientific publicity.

2. The *perforated envelope*, such as the Soleau envelope or any other more perfected type which may be discovered. We should put our readers on their guard against an impression which we ourselves shared when this system was first explained to us. We felt that the idea was of a purely mechanical and almost childish nature, scarcely in keeping with the seriousness of the subject. This impression, however, proved incorrect, and the idea deserves careful consideration.

It should be noted that in France, by the Decrees and Regulations of May 14th, 1914, recently modified by the Regulations of June 23rd, 1921, this method, which is more reliable, practical, expeditious and economical than that of deposit, has been adopted for establishing priority in the creation of designs and models in the industries manufacturing the following articles: engravings, prints, trinkets, jewellery, gold and silver goods, bronzes, embroidery, etc. Industrial models and designs constitute, as we have seen (§ 3) — and it is well to recall it — what is claimed to be a *neutral zone* between author's rights and patents.

The difficulties created by the war and post-war conditions have hitherto proved an obstacle to the extension of this ingenious method in breadth — if one may use this expression — (*i.e.*, in international relations) and in depth (*i.e.*, not only to mere industrial designs and models, but also to the domain of science).

In any case, two highly important facts should be noted:

The first is that, since May 7th, 1915, a decree has been in existence authorising all persons concerned to send the Soleau envelope to the International Bureau in Berne; and on June 2nd, 1915, the above-mentioned Bureau in Berne issued regulations for the organisation of this new international system. The special double envelope, containing two identical copies, after being registered and perforated at the "Office National de la Propriété industrielle" in Paris, is transmitted by the latter to the Berne Bureau, which, after registering the objects and charging a very small fee to cover registration, carriage and safe-keeping, separates the two compartments of the envelope and transmits one to the sender while retaining the other in its archives for five years — a period which may be extended, if desired, for another five years. The copy kept at Berne may be forwarded to the tribunal and constitutes an indisputable proof of creation from an international point of view. It is laid down in Article 6 of the Berne International Regulations that, in the event of a dispute, the sender may request the Bureau itself to forward to him the envelope (which he will refer to by its international series number) in order that he may send it to a judicial or administrative body, which will return it, after examination, to the International Bureau in Berne. When the envelopes which are returned in this way have been received by the Berne Bureau, they are to be marked with a notification to the effect that they have been sent abroad, and they are then to be replaced in the archives until the expiration of the period of deposit.

The second fact is that undoubtedly the system of perforated envelopes is meeting with great success. It would appear that the perforated-envelope system, which is capable of progressive improvement, is likely to solve numerous problems of an industrial and commercial nature. It will make it possible to establish not only the exclusive right of the creator of the design to his own work, but also *that of the inventor to his discovery*, of the trader to his trade-mark, of the writer, the composer, the engineer, the author of any sort of creation, whatever may be the degree of achievement — and, in particular, whether it is a case of a *preliminary conception, which is maturing*, or of a *final conception, which has been completely developed and has reached the stage at which it can be applied*. The envelope is communicated sealed, and the Bureau perforates it without knowing what it contains. M. Röthlisberger, Director of the United Bureaux in Berne, even told us that he thought more than one envelope received by the Bureau must contain, not designs and models, but the description of inventions of quite another kind. This would show that inventors had attempted, even before legislation sanctioned their action, to utilise this convenient and unobtrusive method of assuring the priority of their invention.

While it is clear that the adoption of this system presupposes the active and international participation of authors, the participation will be so moderate and confidential that the natural reserve of the most disinterested scientist could never be alarmed thereby.

Finally, the perforated-envelope system, if extended to include scientific discoveries, would be the first step towards that union with the Berne Bureaux which we have declared to be necessary.

Naturally, the priority established by means of the envelope could never compete with the priority obtained by genuine publicity. We have only placed the envelope system on a higher level than that of ordinary publicity because this system calls for a more active participation on the part of the scientist. It is evident, however, that priority established by envelope could only constitute proof when opposed to priority established in the same manner, as is already the case with designs and models. In competition with genuine publicity, the envelope system could not do more than establish a purely scientific priority.

3. The "*material form*" or "*principle*" patent (*brevet de corps ou de principe*), as its proposer, M. Barthélemy, calls it, but which, we agree, with M. Galier, it would be better to call merely the "*principle*" patent, in order to avoid all confusion between the patent thus proposed and the "*material form*" patent, which is already opposed to the "*procedure*" patent (*brevet de procédé*).

This "*principle*" patent should be sought and granted in accordance with the procedure at present in force for the issue of ordinary patents.

The arguments adduced against M. Barthélemy's system, to the effect that it would still further complicate and overtax the ordinary patent system, may possibly, in our opinion, be rebutted when we have determined more precisely than M. Barthélemy has done both the relationship of the person to whom this category of patent is granted towards the holder of an ordinary scientific author's right, and the relationship of this "principle" patent, the ordinary patent. We do not think it is for us to undertake this definition, because we should be led to engage in too detailed a controversy. It is true that the first point should not offer any great difficulty, because as this author's right also has to be defined, it may be established so as not to conflict with the "principle" patent. In any case such patent could not, in our opinion, have any force in this connection other than that of a specially conclusive form of publicity. When, however, we come to consider the question of ordinary patents — which are already recognised in all legislations — it is clear that the question becomes far more complicated. We should indeed have to distinguish between the various categories of patents which are already recognised, since one law recognises only one variety, while another law recognises two, three or even four. Again, we should have to consider the question of the period of exploitation, which is not universally countenanced. We should, finally, have to consider whether a preliminary investigation should or should not be required before the granting of the patent, what the scope of this investigation should be, etc. However, we do not think that these difficulties are insuperable. There already exists in several countries a system somewhat resembling that of the "principle" patent, which it is proposed to establish. Instances in point are the *precautionary patent*, established by the Argentine law of 1864 and the Bolivian law of 1916, and again the *provisional patent* or *caveat*, recognised by Canadian legislation, which is granted to a person who intends to apply for a patent but who has not yet perfected his invention and fears that he may lose his right of priority.

4. Finally, the *ordinary patent*. We may note that the scope of a patent of this kind will be extended in two directions, that is to say: (a) when biological or pharmaceutical products have been recognised as capable of being patented, without the former limitations; and (b) when the protection accorded to pure discovery inevitably leads to a diminution of the severity hitherto exercised in examining the character of a patentable invention.

All these methods cannot be said to cause overlapping, but rather to constitute an ascending scale towards a more explicit and material crystallisation of the idea of priority in discovery, each of them being adapted both to the diversity of the inventions and to the diversity of their authors' characters, the latter being free to make their own choice between ordinary publication, special publication, the perforated envelope system, the "principle" patent, and the patent established by the ordinary law.

VII. The right of the scientist, since it is assimilated to that of the artist or the man of letters, ought to have a duration analogous to that established in the case of authors' rights, that is to say, the life of the author, plus 50 years after his death, in accordance with the general law of the international convention in force.

Nevertheless, since discoveries were involved from which society as a whole might derive an immediate and concrete benefit, it was necessary to invoke a principle different from that governing artistic and literary creations, for which the question does not arise. In other words, the author is not refused the monopoly of the exploitation of his discovery in order to be granted simply a part of the profits derived from such exploitation by others, except, of course, if the author succeeds in obtaining an ordinary patent and is thus able to take advantage of the general law. In this case, he retains the advantages derived from the longer time-limit fixed for authors' rights.

Nothing, indeed, prevents the continuance of the original right, once the patent has ceased to be valid. The proposition set forth below, and formulated by M. Lucien Klotz (*La Propriété Industrielle*, 1923, page 82), seems to us very reasonable; moreover, an assembly of noted scientists has put forward the recommendation "that when a patent has become invalid from any cause whatsoever, the inventor should have a *droit de suite* (continued rights) to his invention for a period of time to be determined". This period can be none other than that fixed in general for the duration of scientific authors' rights.

VIII. Questions arising between nationals of the same State with regard to the priority of a discovery, or with regard to the amount of royalty to be paid to the author of the discovery by the person exploiting it, will, of course, be decided in accordance with the laws of the State to which the two parties belong.

But the situation assumes a particularly delicate aspect when a question of this nature arises between nationals of different States. The rule that the nationals of one of the countries members of the Union shall enjoy, in any of the other countries members of the Union, the same rights as the citizens of the country in question does not completely meet the needs of the cases with which we are concerned, even if it may be considered adequate in cases of a different nature. It has been demonstrated that in no other field is national pride more excitable, more prone to take offence and more unjust. It is fatally unjust and one may even say that it is unjust in perfect good faith. Has not the credit for the greatest discoveries often been claimed by several nations at the same time?

The much-desired establishment of an international jurisdiction to decide questions of this nature is still too problematical and, in any case, too remote, in spite of the ardent wishes which have recently been expressed in favour of this new means of instituting the reign of justice among the nations (see § 8).

The establishment of obligatory arbitration, presenting sure guarantees of competence and objectivity, seems to be for the moment the most effective solution of the problem. In order to establish such arbitration, it seems reasonable to appeal to the aid of professional representatives, who are themselves assuming to an increasing extent an international character — a

character which would inevitably be developed in consequence of this delicate task having been entrusted to them.

Moreover, the necessity of enlarging more and more the field of arbitration in international relations is felt in regard to other matters, as is proved by the following example, which seems to us extremely significant.

Towards the end of last year, the Economic Committee of the League of Nations appointed a committee, composed of legal and commercial experts, to study the question of international arbitration in matters relating to commercial contracts. This committee produced the same result as ours, that is to say, a draft convention, which it presented to the Economic Committee and which that Committee approved in one of its recent sessions, deciding to submit the draft to the States Members of the League of Nations. The most characteristic provisions of this draft convention, dated May 24th, 1923, are as follows:

"The validity of an agreement to submit an existing difference to arbitration, or of an agreement in respect of future differences relating to commercial matters or to any other matter capable of settlement by arbitration, by which the parties agree to submit to arbitration all or any differences which may arise in connection with a contract, is recognised as between persons subject to the jurisdiction of different Contracting Parties, even if the arbitration is to take place in a country to whose jurisdiction none of the parties is subject.

"The arbitral procedure will be governed by the provisions of the contract and by the law of the country in whose territory the arbitration takes place. The Contracting Parties agree to facilitate all steps in the procedure which require to be taken in their own territories in accordance with the provisions of their law governing arbitral procedure applicable to existing differences.

"Each Contracting Party undertakes that arbitral awards made in its own territory under the preceding articles shall be enforced by its authorities in accordance with the provisions of its national laws."

It goes without saying that the provisions quoted above only provide for the recognition by the various States of arbitral procedure, and for investing it with international juridical efficacy, in cases where the parties have already contracted to accept it. In our case, on the other hand, the idea would be to impose arbitration upon the parties at the request of one of them alone. We do not consider, however, that this difference, which arises from the very different character of the juridical relations to be regulated, and not from a different conception of the institution of arbitration and of its possible application in the international field, should prevent us from regarding the precedent created by the Economic Committee as a step forward in the same direction in which we are going.

IX. It would not seem that the important and complex problem of factory inventions can, at present, form the subject of an international convention. It is sufficient to read the exhaustive study published in the review entitled *La Propriété Industrielle* (1922, pp. 23-31) in order to realise the importance and difficulty of the question, as well as the great disparity in the legislative systems, legal decisions and doctrinal opinions invoked in connection therewith, and also to understand that an attempt at unification by means of international agreements would be altogether premature; all the more so because such unification could not be effected without, at the same time, modifying the national laws and the international conventions concerning patents — a task which would exceed the scope of the work which we have undertaken.

All that one can say then is that the protection granted to pure discoveries, that is to say, the creation of a copyright for the benefit of the scientist, would necessarily contribute to the recognition of the inventors' rights of the employee or the wage-earner as regards the granting of patents. The personality of the employee, at present absorbed and almost effaced in favour of the institution, cannot fail to be brought again indirectly to the fore as a result of this new and resolute appreciation of the personality of the inventor and of individual thought.

X. The other provisions of the draft convention explain themselves. In drawing them up, the rapporteur has followed as closely as he thought possible the conventions already in force for the protection of authors' rights and of patents.

He has, however, inserted in these conventions such provisions of the two French drafts as were susceptible of insertion, often transcribing them literally. He has done so primarily because these provisions, which are the result of proposals and exhaustive discussions on the part of competent persons and organisations, represent the desiderata of those concerned, whose opinions deserve the greatest consideration, especially in such a matter as this.

Furthermore, the rapporteur has profited largely by the valuable proposals which he has received and the corrections which have been suggested to him, especially by Senator Lafontaine, Professor Wigmore, Professor Hudson, a member of the Legal Section of the Secretariat of the League of Nations, and the directors of the Bureaux at Berne, all of whom he begs to accept his most sincere thanks.

§ 14. — DRAFT CONVENTION.

Article 1. — The Contracting Parties shall constitute a Union for the protection of the rights of authors to their scientific discoveries or inventions.

Article 2. — The authors of scientific discoveries or inventions shall enjoy the exclusive right of deriving profit from their discoveries or inventions.

Article 3. — The purpose of the present Convention is to protect discoveries, that is to say, expositions and demonstrations of the existence, previously unknown, of laws, principles, bodies, agents or properties of living beings or of matter, and inventions, that is to say, creations of the mind (consisting of methods, appliances, products, the composition of products previously unknown, and, in general, all new applications of discoveries and inventions), the specifically scientific character of which deprives them of the protection granted to works of industry, art and literature.

Article 4. — The duration of the protection granted by the present Convention shall consist of the lifetime of the author and 50 years after his death.

Article 5. — The authors of the discoveries and inventions described in Articles 2 and 3 of the present Convention may not put obstacles in the way of the industrial or commercial exploitation of the new applications of their discoveries and inventions, but they shall preserve authors' rights in respect of the economic advantages of such exploitation.

Consequently, they shall have the right to exact a royalty on a scale to be determined by agreement between the parties or in default thereof by the tribunal.

This right shall only accrue to authors if the industrial or commercial applications in question are the result of their discoveries or inventions, and consequently not if their discoveries or inventions, only give a scientific demonstration of a result or of a process already known, that is to say, already applied beforehand in industry or commerce.

Article 6. — Each of the Contracting States may classify a discovery or an invention as being necessary to the public interest and may determine the conditions according to which the right of the inventor shall be fixed.

This right of each State only extends to the discoveries and inventions of its nationals, except in cases where the States adhering to the Union agree to extend the exercise of this right to all the territories of the Union.

The author of a discovery or an invention shall be required to grant the requisite licenses for ensuring the necessary supply for public use, the different manufacturers or exploiters being bound to reserve to him authors' rights in accordance with Article 5 of the present Convention.

Article 7. — In order to establish his claim to these rights, the author of the discovery or the invention must furnish proof that the discovery or invention in question has received sufficient publicity.

Publication of the discovery or invention in the technical reviews, in acts of congresses or in academic memoranda shall be deemed sufficient publicity.

Article 8. — The author of a discovery or invention may establish the object and the priority of his discovery or of his invention by sending to the International Bureau at Berne a perforated envelope of the "Soleau" type, according to the procedure established in 1915 for industrial models and designs.

Article 9. — The author of a discovery or invention may obtain recognition of his rights by means of a "principle" patent, granted on the conditions laid down by the Conventions in force concerning "application" patents.

The duration of the right derived from the grant of a "principle" patent (*brevet de principe*) shall be the same as that laid down in Article 4 of the present Convention.

Article 10. — The authors of therapeutical discoveries or inventions shall be entitled to the benefits of the present Convention.

Article 11. — On the expiration, from any cause whatsoever, of a patent the object of which is to apply a scientific discovery or invention, the author of this invention and the holder of the patent in question shall continue to possess a continuous right (*droit de suite*) in conformity with the provisions of articles 4, 5 and 6 of the present Convention.

Article 12. — Questions concerning the priority of a discovery or an invention and questions concerning the amount to be paid to the author when his discovery or invention is exploited industrially, shall be settled by the Courts of the State concerned in cases in which such questions arise between nationals of the same State.

These tribunals shall, so far as the internal legislation of each country permits, utilise the services of experts belonging preferably to academic bodies and competent technical associations.

Article 13. — The subjects or citizens of each of the contracting States shall enjoy in all other States of the Union rights similar to those which are granted, or may in the future be granted, to the nationals of these States under their respective laws.

Article 14. — Nevertheless, each of the parties shall have the right to resort to arbitration by experts belonging preferably to academic bodies or competent technical associations.

Each of the parties shall appoint one or two arbitrators; the latter shall in turn appoint a referee.

In cases in which the parties are nationals of different States, they shall appoint two arbitrators, one of whom shall be a national of some State other than their own. The referee must be a national of a State other than the States of which the parties are nationals.

Article 15. — The seat of the Arbitration Tribunal shall, failing any agreement between the parties to the contrary, be the seat of the United International Bureaux for Industrial, Literary and Artistic Property at Berne.

The fees and allowances granted to arbitrators shall be the same as those granted to members of the Committees of the League of Nations.

The Arbitration Tribunal shall decide who is to pay the costs of arbitration proceedings and how such costs are to be allocated.

Article 16. — The arbitration procedure must be regulated in accordance with the law of the country within whose territory arbitration takes place. The contracting countries undertake

to facilitate all acts of procedure to be carried out in their territory, in conformity with the provisions of their own legislation regarding arbitration procedure.

Article 17. — The contracting countries undertake that the arbitration awards given within their own territory or within the territory of one of the high Contracting Parties in virtue of the preceding articles shall be executed by their authorities in conformity with the provisions of their own legislation.

Article 18. — Authors of discoveries and inventions may be represented, in their relations with exploiters, by a technical association which will act for them and on their behalf and will supervise sales and the collection of charges.

Article 19. — Any disputes which may arise concerning the interpretation of application of the present Convention shall be referred, if no direct agreement can be reached between the parties concerned, to the Permanent Court of International Justice, and the High Contracting Parties undertake to accept the jurisdiction of the Court for the settlement of such disputes.

Article 20. — Each contracting State may request the convening of a conference for the revision of the present Convention. The first conference shall take place at and shall decide at which place the next meeting shall be held. The Secretariat of the League of Nations shall, in co-operation with the Berne International Bureaux, prepare the work of the conferences. The managing body of the International Bureaux shall be represented at the meetings of the conferences and its representative or representatives shall take part in the discussions, though they shall not be entitled to vote.

Article 21. — Countries which are not parties to the present Convention, but which within their territory afford legal protection to the rights with which the present Convention deals, shall be permitted to adhere to it if they so request.

Such adherence shall be notified in writing to the League of Nations, registered by the Secretariat of the League and communicated by the Secretary-General to all the other States concerned.

Such adherence shall *ipso facto* entail adherence to all the clauses and participation in all the advantages of the present Convention.

Article 22. — All countries adhering to the present Convention shall undertake to apply its provisions to their colonies, possessions and protectorates.

Article 23. — The United Bureaux at Berne shall collect information of every kind concerning the protection of scientific property. They shall conduct investigations in all matters of general interest to the Union and shall publish the results in one of the periodical bulletins issued by them until such time as a decision is taken to establish a special periodical for scientific property.

Should the duties provided for in the preceding paragraph involve the Berne International Bureaux in additional expenditure, such expenditure shall be allocated between the signatory States, in accordance with the rules laid down in paragraphs 7, 8 and 9 of Article 13 of the International Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property (Paris Convention of March 20th, 1883, revised at Washington on June 2nd, 1911).

Annex.

SCIENTIFIC COPYRIGHT.

MEMORANDUM

dated August 2nd, 1923, by Mr. John H. Wigmore, for reference to the Sub-Committee,

1. The object of the proposal of M. Ruffini and his colleagues on the Sub-Committee is one which should enlist the support of all friends of progress. The failure of the scientific man of genius to obtain from the world any material recognition of the share due to him out of the profits which the world has made from his discoveries is a shortcoming in the law which ought, if possible, to be remedied.

The question is how to express the new limits which are to be enlarged in the law of patent and copyright ?

It is respectfully submitted that the Draft Convention proposed in the Sub-Committee's report ought to receive further scrutiny in the following ways, before being offered to the Council for final approval and submission to the respective Governments for acceptance:

(a) In respect to the phraseology of the definition in Article 3.

(b) In respect to the general policy of ascertaining the support of public opinion.

These two considerations will be briefly explained in sequence.

2. Referring to the definition in Article 3, it will be seen to grant added protection to discoveries of scientific principles or laws, etc.

To appreciate the significance of this, we must call to mind the existing limitations of the law of patents *brevets d'invention* in the United States Patent Act, which has existed for nearly 150 years and under which more than one million inventions have been patented, thus demonstrating this law to have been one of the most favourable to encouragement of industrial invention. The patent right is accorded to anyone "who has invented or discovered any new and useful

art, machine, manufacture or composition of matter". The essential words here are the concluding words composition of matter". It is obvious that the discovery of an abstract principle or law of science will thereby be excluded from the grant of a patent. And such has been the invariable interpretation of the Courts of the United States for a century and a half. For example, when, about 1840, a medical scientist discovered that the substance ether when inspired into the human body affected the nerves so as to produce callousness to pain externally caused, the discoverer sought to patent the discovery, but his claim was rejected on the ground that his discovery concerned an abstract principle of science, and that it was not an application of such a principle embodied in a tangible "composition of matter." Similarly, when the litigation took place over the invention of the telephone and Mr. Bell claimed a patent for any method of reproducing intelligible vocal sounds by placing two metal discs in contact with an electric current, the opponents of this claim argued that the discovery was of the rank of a principle of science and that Mr. Bell was not entitled to a patent; but the Supreme Court of the United States, in a learned opinion, covering 600 pages in length, rejected this objection and decided that Mr. Bell's invention was something more than a principle of science and was indeed a concrete application of a principle in the form of a "composition of matter".

Nevertheless, it will be thought that this rejection by the Anglo-American law of a right of patent for a principle of science is an unworthy limitation. However, a few moments of reflection will explain the historical origin and reasonableness of this limitation.

If we cast our minds back over the history of scientific discovery, it will be apparent that the greatest part of the discoveries of science up to the last generation or two have consisted in discovering principles which explained obvious facts of human life. For example, Sir Isaac Newton's discovery of the law of gravitation was a revelation of the reason why water runs downhill and why, on the other hand, smoke ascends in the air. So also the discovery of the scientific principle of combustion was an explanation and revelation of the secret and invisible reasons for that phenomenon of fire which has been concretely known to humanity ever since Prometheus committed his primitive sacrilege against the secret knowledge of the gods. But during the last generation or two the rapid progress of science has gone beyond the explanation of the obvious practices of human activity, and is now discovering principles of profound import that, when discovered, enable us to enter upon activities which the human mind had never been able to contemplate. For example, the discovery of radium has led to a hundred practical activities never before attempted in concrete life. So also the discovery of the so-called Hertzian waves has led to a hundred varieties of the use of wireless apparatus of communication.

Therefore it can well be seen that, in these new conditions of scientific discovery, the principles of science thus discovered may and do constantly lead to novel activities which never before existed, and that this is perhaps one of the most marked features of modern science. This being so, it may well commend itself to enlightened humanity to decrease the boundaries of the patent right and to sanction for the discoverer of such scientific principles a right to the share in the profits of the applications which arise from his principle.

Let us assume for the moment that this novel explanation of right would be accepted by professional and public opinion. But even so it must be pointed out that the field of discovery for scientific principles is still much larger, and that undoubtedly science will continue to make, more and more, profound discoveries of principle, which, like the old science, will do nothing more than explain the reasons for human activities that have been long practised. Therefore it is positively essential to mark the distinction between these two kinds of discoveries, while granting the new extension of rights.

For example, suppose that the practice of breeders of hogs, as known for the last 50 years, that the best weight in a hog for the market is obtained by the crossing of a Belfort hog with a Dedham hog under certain circumstances (these names are assumed as illustrations only), and then suppose that a biologist discovers and announces as a law of science some new quasi-Mendelian law that whenever two species have been separated by at least three generations of life and are brought together at rigid intervals of three generations over a triple series of generations, the product represents in arithmetical ratio the qualities of the original two species combined, and suppose that this discovery of science reveals completely the reason for the success of crossing the Belfort and Dedham species: is it to be supposed for one moment that all the breeders of hogs of the world must thereafter pay a royalty to the discoverer of this scientific principle which they have ignorantly been employing empirically for 50 years past? Or suppose again, with reference to the Bessemer steel process of purifying steel of sulphur by the application of a current of air. Suppose that a scientist now discovers that the vibrating electrons of certain gases and minerals have a rhythmic rotation so that when a gas and a mineral are approximated at intervals of not more than one-thousandth of a second and not less than one ten-thousandth of a second, the vibrations of the electrons become synchronised and the atoms of the gas and the mineral associate themselves forcibly and depart from any other connections — suppose that this discovery completely reveals, in a more profound and accurate manner than all previous science had done, the reason for the success of the Bessemer steel process, would it not be intolerable to propose that the steel-mills of the world should pay a royalty to the discoverer of the principle which they had been practically employing in a concrete form of a "composition of matter" for the past 50 years?

It must be obvious therefore that, even if we are ready to concede to scientists the right to a share of the profits for some of their discoveries, a sure line must be drawn between those discoveries which lead to novel applications based exclusively on the discoveries, and those discoveries which merely explain practices already existing in industry generally.

A reference at this point to the definition of the new right in Article 3 of the proposed Convention will show that no attempt has been made in that article to draw such a line. It is respectfully

submitted, therefore, that the definition in Article 3 ought to be more fully considered by experts in patent law before the Convention is presented to the Council for adoption.

3. The second consideration is that of practical policy, above alluded to, which should consider the natural caution which will be found to obtain in all professional opinion whenever a radical novelty is proposed. In other words, if a proposal is made to the professional men of all countries, and particularly to the judges and practitioners of the patent law, to extend recognition to discoveries of principles of science, it may be assumed as certain that they will at first reject the proposal, particularly because of the radical novelty of it, and particularly because of hesitation at the consequence of a too broad extension beyond the present law as pointed out in the above paragraph. It may also be assumed that, if the admirable report of the Sub-Committee of which M. Ruffini is Chairman could be fully brought to the attention of such professional men, and if they could peruse the powerful reasoning therein contained, their hesitation would be overcome with respect to the moral justice of according the new right to the scientific discoverer. But they would still most certainly be obliged to reject the proposal in its present form because of its failure to draw the important distinction above explained, and because they would foresee, by reason of its present phraseology, an extraordinary interference with the course of industrial activities of the world.

Therefore on this ground also it seems highly desirable to placate in advance these scruples of the professional men of all countries. It is certain that, without a measure of their support, no Government would be willing to sign this Convention. Whenever it arrives in the hands of a Government it will be submitted to the appropriate law officers, who will naturally share the hesitation above described, and whose advice will be contrary to acceptance of the Convention. This will be unfortunate, in the first place because it will subject the work of the League to an apparent discredit in offering an unacceptable proposal. It would also be needless, because, if the report of the Sub-Committee, with its exposition of motives, could have been submitted to such official experts of all countries before the submission of the final Convention, it would have prepared their minds, and perhaps obviated their objections.

Therefore the present proposal is respectfully submitted to the Sub-Committee in the shape of a motion:

“Moved that the report of the Sub-Committee be placed on the agenda for the next annual session, 1924, of the Plenary Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and that in the meantime the Secretariat be requested to submit the report in translation to private bodies, professional and official, in at least ten different nations, and to invite the expression of their expert views as to the definitions of the terms ‘discoveries’ and ‘inventions’, contained in Article 3 of the proposed Convention; so as to inform this Committee:

“(1) First, how far these definitions are deemed to enlarge the present rights of scientific authors and inventors;

“(2) Secondly, whether any different definitions would more suitably attain the proposed enlargement of rights; and,

“(3) Thirdly, whether such enlargement would receive approval in principle, by the professional opinion in the respective nations.”

It is regretted that the writer is prevented by circumstances from attending in person the meeting of the Sub-Committee, and this memorandum is submitted in lieu of personal attendance.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

FIRST PART — CRITICAL SURVEY.

	Page
§ 1. The Problem	I
§ 2. The Method	2
§ 3. Author or Inventor ?	4
§ 4. General Objections	5
§ 5. Specific Objections: (a) Invention and Discovery	7
§ 6. (b) Artistic Creation and Scientific Conception	9

SECOND PART — PROPOSALS.

§ 7. Historical Retrospect	10
§ 8. National Law or International Convention ?	11
§ 9. How is the Scientist to be rewarded ?	13
§ 10. Patent Rights or Authors' Rights ?	15
§ 11. The Lines that should be followed.	17
§ 12. Difficulties	18
§ 13. Guiding Principles.	19
§ 14. Draft Convention	24
Annex, Memorandum on scientific copyright by Mr. John H. Wigmore	26

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and to the Members of the League.]

GENEVA, September 1st, 1923.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL
CO-OPERATION

MINUTES
of the
SECOND SESSION.

Geneva, July 26th to August 2nd, 1923.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Page
First meeting held on July 26th, 1923, at 10 o'clock	7
42. Opening Speech of the Chairman	7
43. Elections	8
44. Publicity of Discussions	8
45. Results of the Enquiry on the Condition of Intellectual Life in various Countries ...	9
(a) Reports of M. de Reynold	9
(b) Reports of M. Castella	9
(c) Reports of M. Julien Luchaire	10
Second meeting held on July 26th, at 3.30 p.m.	11
46. Results of the Enquiry into the State of Intellectual Life in the various countries (continued)... ..	11
(a) Report of M. Dopsch on Austria	11
(b) Reports of Professor de Halecki	11
(c) Reports of M. Reverdin... ..	12
(d) Report of M. de Castro	12
(e) Reports of M. Bannerjea	13
(f) Reports of Dr. Nitobé	14
(g) Report of M. William Martin	14
Third meeting held on July 27th, at 10 a.m.	15
47. Publication of the Results of the Enquiry into the Conditions of Intellectual Life ...	15
48. Method of Pursuing the Enquiry into the Condition of Intellectual Life	17
49. Appointment of a Substitute for Dr. Millikan	18
Fourth Meeting held on July 27th, at 3.30 p.m.	18
50. Organisation of Assistance for Countries where Intellectual Life is particularly threatened	18
51. Organisation of Relief for Intellectuals among the Russian Refugees	22
Fifth Meeting held on July 28th, at 10 a.m.	22
52. Adoption of M. Ruffini's Report on the Protection of Scientific Property	22
Sixth meeting held on July 28th, at 3.30 p.m.	24
53. Proposals relative to Analytical Bibliography	24
54. Proposals relative to Title Bibliography	26
55. Proposals concerning International Libraries	26
56. Proposals concerning the International Exchange of Publications	27
57. Proposals relative to Index Bibliographicus	27
Seventh Meeting held on July 30th, at 10 a.m.	28
58. Report by M. Ruffini on the subject of International agreement for Archæological Research and the publication of the results achieved by such research	28
59. Relations with International Organisations	29
Eighth Meeting held on July 30th at 3.30 p.m.	29
60. Interview with M. Gallié, representative of the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers	29
61. Relations with International Organisations	29
62. Proposals concerning Exchange of Professors	30
63. Proposals relative to the Exchange of Students	31
64. Proposals relative to the Equivalence of Diplomas and Grades	32
65. Proposals relating to a Central University Information Bureau	33
Note by M. Bannerjea on the Creation of an International Universities Bureau ...	33
66. Proposals relating to Courses of Study of Contemporary Nations	34
67. Proposals relating to Mutual aid between nations in connection with Modern Lan- guages, Literatures and Civilisations	34
68. Proposals relating to International Vacation Courses	34
69. Proposals relating to the Compilation of History Text Books	35
70. Proposals relating to the Creation of an International University	35
Ninth Meeting , held on July 31st, at 10 a.m.	35
71. Resolution on Mutual International Assistance for the Study of Modern Languages, Literatures and Civilisations	35
72. Decision of the Committee on the Subject of the Offer of the Municipality of Capri ...	35
73. Questions relating to the Teaching of Esperanto and the Problem of an International Language	36
Tenth Meeting , held on July 31st, at 3.30 p.m.	39
74. Continuation of Discussion on the Problem of an Auxiliary International Language ...	39
75. Relations of the Committee with the International Congress on Moral Education... ..	41
76. Proposal relative to International Scientific Congresses	41

	Page
Eleventh Meeting , held on August 1st, at 10 a.m.	42
77. Resolution of the Committee on the Problem of an Auxiliary International Language	42
78. Report from the Committee on Publications	42
79. Organisation of Relief for Intellectuals among the Russian Emigrants	43
80. General Report of the Committee to the Council and Assembly	43
81. Resolution of the Committee regarding the Continuation of Professor de Halecki's Work	43
82. Further Work of the Committee	44
Twelfth meeting , held on August 1st, at 3.30 p.m.	44
83. Corresponding Members of the Committee	44
84. National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation... ..	45
85. Experts of the Committee	45
86. Credits necessary for the Committee	46
87. New Questions for Consideration before the next session by the Committee and its sub-committees	48
88. Composition of the Sub-Committees	48
89. Vote of Thanks to the Chairman	48
Thirteenth Meeting (public), held on August 2nd, at 11 a.m.	48
90. Work of the Committee	48

Annex 1.

The First Results of the Enquiry concerning countries of Central and Eastern Europe. Report by the Secretary of the Committee.	50
I. General Observations	
II. Analysis of the Replies received :	
1. Albania	51
2. Bulgaria	51
3. Esthonia	51
4. Finland	53
5. Greece	53
6. Hungary	54
7. Latvia	54
8. Lithuania	55
9. Poland	55
10. Roumania	56
11. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes	57
12. Czechoslovakia	57
III. Conclusions	58

Annex 2.

Report submitted by the Secretary on the Assistance to be rendered to Countries where the Continuance of Intellectual Life is particularly endangered	59
--	----

Appendix.

National Committees and Institutions co-operating with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in the countries where the Conditions of Intellectual Life are particularly unfavourable	60
---	----

Annex 3.

Replies of the Governments to the Invitation of the Council to adhere to the Conventions of 1886 regarding the International Exchange of Publications	62
--	----

Annex 4.

Report on an International Understanding for the "Discovery of Archæological Monuments and the Publication of the Results", submitted to the Committee by Senator F. Ruffini	63
---	----

Annex 5.

University Information Bureau	68
--------------------------------------	----

Annex 6.

A Proposal for the Establishment of an International University under the Auspices of the League of Nations	69
--	----

Annex 7.

Relations of the Committee with the International Congresses on Moral Education. Memorandum by the Secretariat... ..	71
--	----

Annex 8.

Proposal of M. Munch, Danish Delegate to the Assembly, with regard to International Scientific Congresses. Memorandum by the Secretariat	72
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COMPOSITION OF THE COMMITTEE.

Members :

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|--------------------------|---|
| Mr. D. N. BANNERJEA, | Professor of Political Economy at the University of Calcutta. |
| M. H. BERGSON, | Honorary Professor of Philosophy at the Collège de France ; Member of the French Academy and of the Académie des Sciences morales et politiques ; Associate of the Académie royale de Belgique ; Corresponding Fellow of the British Academy ; Foreign Hon. Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh ; Foreign Member of the " Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei ", Rome, of the Royal Danish Scientific Society, Copenhagen, and of the Institut national genevois, |
| Mlle. K. BONNEVIE, | Professor of Zoology at the University of Christiania ; Norwegian Delegate at the Assembly of the League of Nations. |
| M. A. DE CASTRO, | Professor of Clinical Medicine and Director of the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Rio de Janeiro. |
| Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA, | Professor of Physics at the University of Paris ; Honorary Professor of the University of Warsaw ; Member of the Paris Académie de Médecine, of the Polish Academy and of the Scientific Society at Warsaw ; Foreign Member of the Amsterdam and Stockholm Academies of Sciences. |
| M. J. DESTRÉE, | Former Minister for Sciences and Arts ; Member of the Académie royale de Belgique and of the Académie belge de langue et de littérature françaises. |
| M. H. A. LORENTZ, | Professor of Theoretical Physics at the University of Leyden ; Member of the Amsterdam Academy of Science ; Honorary Member of the Vienna Academy of Sciences ; Foreign Member of the Royal Society of London and of the " Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei ", Rome ; Foreign Associate of the Academy of Sciences, Paris, and the National Academy of Sciences at Washington ; Secretary-General of the Netherlands Scientific Society, Haarlem. |
| Mr. R. A. MILLIKAN, | Director of the " Norman Bridge " Laboratory of Physics at the California Institute of Technology ; Foreign Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences, Washington ; Vice-President of the National Research Council ; Member of the International Research Council ; Exchange Professor to Belgium. |
| Mr. G. A. MURRAY, | Professor of Greek at Oxford University ; Member of the Council of the British Academy ; Delegate of South Africa to the Assembly of the League of Nations ; President of the Executive Committee of the League of Nations Union. |
| M. G. DE REYNOLD, | Professor of French Literature and Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Berne ; Vice-President of the Catholic Union for International Studies and of the Swiss Federation of Intellectual Workers. |
| M. F. RUFFINI, | Professor of Ecclesiastical Law at the University of Turin ; Senator ; former Minister of Public Education ; President of the Royal Academy of Turin ; Corresponding Member of the " Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei ", Rome ; President of the Italian League of Nations Union. |
| M. L. DE TORRES QUEVEDO, | Director of the Madrid Electro-Mechanical Laboratory ; Member of the " Junta para Ampliación de Estudios " ; Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Madrid. |

At this session of the Committee, Mme. Curie-Skłodowska was unable to be present owing to illness ; M. Destrée was replaced during the first three days by M. H. LAFONTAINE, Vice-President of the Belgian Senate, Secretary-General of the Union of International Associations : Dr. Millikan was replaced throughout the session by Dr. J. H. WIGMORE, Dean of the Faculty of Law at the North-Western University, Chicago, Commissioner for the Unification of State Laws in the United States, assisted by Capt. P. PÉRIGORD, Professor of Political Economy at the California Institute of Technology, Lecturer at the California State University ; Prof. Murray was also replaced throughout the session by Mr. G. LOWES DICKINSON, Fellow and Lecturer of King's College, Cambridge.

Austrian Correspondent :

M. A. DOPSEN, Professor of General History and former Rector of the University of Vienna ; Member of the Vienna Academy of Sciences.

Experts :

M. G. CASTELLA, Professor of Swiss History and General History at the University of Friburg.
M. J. LUCHAIRE, Honorary Professor of the University of Grenoble ; Inspector-General of Public Education in France.
M. H. REVERDIN, Professor of Philosophy at the University of Geneva.

Representative of the Secretary-General of the League of Nations :

M. I. NITOBÉ, Professor of Colonial History at the University of Tokio ; Under-Secretary-General of the League of Nations, and Director of the Section of International Bureaux.

Representative of the International Labour Office :

M. W. MARTIN, Privat-Docent at the University of Geneva ; Technical Adviser to the International Labour Office.

Secretary of the Committee and Sub-Committees :

M. O. DE HALECKI, Professor of Eastern European History and former Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Warsaw ; Member of Section at the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

COMPOSITION OF SUB-COMMITTEES.

(1) *Bibliography.*

M. BERGSON, Chairman	}	Members of the Committee.
Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA		
M. DESTRÉE		
M. M. GODET,		
Mr. C. T. HAGBERG WRIGHT,		
Mr. J. R. SCHRAMM,		Director of the Swiss National Library. Director of the London Library. Member of the American National Research Council, replaced by Mr. J. D. JOHNSTON, Director of the American Library at Paris.

(2) *Inter-University Relations.*

M. BERGSON, Chairman.
M. DE CASTRO.
M. DESTRÉE.
Mr. MILLIKAN.
Mr. MURRAY, (replaced at the first two sessions by Mr. H. J. PATON, Fellow and Lecturer of Queen's College, Oxford ; and at the third session by Mr. LOWES DICKINSON).
M. DE REYNOLD.

(3) *Intellectual Property.*

M. BERGSON, Chairman.
M. DESTRÉE.
Mr. MILLIKAN.
M. RUFFINI.
M. DE TORRES QUEVEDO.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

MINUTES OF THE SECOND SESSION

FIRST MEETING

held on July 26th, 1923, at 10 a.m.

Present: All the members of the Committee with the exception of Mme Curie-Skłodowska, M. Destrée, substituted by M. Lafontaine, Professor Gilbert Murray, substituted by Mr. Lowes Dickinson, and Mr. Millikan, substituted by M. Périgord.

42. OPENING SPEECH OF THE CHAIRMAN.

M. BERGSON, Chairman of the Committee, welcomed the members, and in particular M. de Castro, who had been good enough once more to make the journey from America to Europe in order to collaborate in the work of the Committee. He regretted the absence through illness of Mme Curie-Skłodowska and extended a welcome to M. Lorentz, whom the Committee was proud and happy to count among its members. He also wished to welcome Mr. Lowes Dickinson, substitute for Professor Gilbert Murray, M. Lafontaine, substitute for M. Destrée and M. Périgord, who had been nominated to replace Mr. Millikan.

The current session was of decisive importance. Holding the view that there might be some work to be accomplished in the domain of intellectual co-operation, the League of Nations had convened twelve savants to consider the question. At its first meeting, the Committee had stated several problems which seemed to it worthy of consideration, and it had thought out a method of work. The League of Nations had left it to its task. The sub-committees had carried out their work and had attained very striking results. At the moment there was before the Committee a series of reports on the position of intellectual life in the various countries, and these reports led to concrete proposals. Further, M. Ruffini had drawn up, on the question of scientific property, an admirable report in which he solved, in theory at least, a problem which many thought insoluble. The international convention proposed by M. Ruffini might be the salvation of scientific research. It would put an end to an injustice which had often been stated to be inevitable, as was said about most injustices before the means of ending them were discovered.

The results which the Committee had obtained up to the present were due not only to the eminent standing of its members but also to the observance from the very beginning of its work of a certain number of tacit conventions. For example, it had been tacitly understood that any vexed question should be avoided—anything, in fact, which would divide the Committee on questions of principle. What was really essential was that there should be agreement on particular decisions and on their application.

The Committee had also avoided considering any reform which might be stigmatised as chimerical, even although it was certain that the chimera of to-day might become the reality of to-morrow. But it had been understood that the Committee could not begin its work by the consideration of chimerical reforms. Further, the Committee had withstood the temptation to consider itself as a kind of super or supra-national intelligence. It had refrained from giving moral counsels on the attitude to be adopted among themselves, by savants or groups of savants, and, *a fortiori*, on the attitude to be adopted by States in such matters.

It did not follow that the Committee should renounce the exercise of a certain moral ascendancy, and it might even be said that the exercise of such ascendancy was one of the Committee's chief objects; but this object would be better realised if the Committee would withstand the temptation (if it was ever tempted) to deliver itself of high-sounding aphorisms, for it should be remembered that advice was of no value in itself considered as a mere phrase; the value of advice resided solely in the confidence inspired by the person giving it. The Committee could acquire this confidence by continuing to work for practical objectives in the interests of international science.

43. ELECTIONS.

The Committee re-elected by acclamation M. BERGSON as Chairman, and Professor Gilbert MURRAY as Vice-Chairman. In the absence of Professor Murray, M. RUFFINI was elected Vice-Chairman *ad interim* for the duration of the session.

44. PUBLICITY OF DISCUSSIONS.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that last year the Committee had decided that its sessions should not be public but that full *communiqués* should be issued to the Press. Did the Committee wish to maintain this procedure ?

M. BANNERJEA proposed that the meetings should be public. During his travels in Europe he had been able to satisfy himself on the lack of knowledge possessed by students and intellectual organisations on the subject of the work of the Committee. Publicity was the best means of combating this lack of knowledge.

M. LAFONTAINE observed that the Committee might have to consider certain questions, in particular certain personal questions. He therefore proposed an intermediate solution : namely, that the Committee should hold a public session at the end of its work.

Mlle. BONNEVIE proposed that all the sessions of the Committee should be public, except for special reasons. Last year the Committee's discussions were of a certain preliminary nature ; this year the Committee was considering definite questions, and it would be desirable that discussion of them should take place in public.

Dr. NITOBÉ, in reply to a question from the Chairman, observed that publicity was the principle of the League of Nations. Since, however, for reasons of expediency, complete publicity was virtually impossible, the League had three kinds of meetings, public, private and secret. At certain private meetings the Press was admitted, but not the general public. On the other hand, most committees held at least one public meeting.

M. BANNERJEA proposed that all the meetings should be open to the Press, except those which the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman considered should not be so opened.

The CHAIRMAN observed that, since the Committee had nothing to hide, it attached no value to secret meetings and that very complete information could be given to the Press. Personally, he was of opinion that the Committee had so far been able to obtain the excellent results which it had obtained partly because the members had been able to exchange ideas without having to think of the effect produced outside. Thus questions could be considered from the practical point of view without additional oratory destined for the public ear. It should be remembered that the spoken word was often conditioned not only by the nature of the subject but also by the audience which was being addressed.

M. LORENTZ, with a preliminary apology for speaking despite his inexperience of the work of the Committee, observed that the Committee was dealing with complex problems. Personally, he would like to be in a position to choose his path and to have an opportunity, if necessary, to change his opinions. This would be more difficult if the Committee deliberated in the presence of representatives of the Press. Despite his belief in the principle of publicity, he urged that the Committee should confine itself to such publicity as was indispensable.

M. DE REYNOLD proposed that the Committee should hold one public meeting a session. This might be a final meeting when the results of the Committee's work would be announced.

The CHAIRMAN observed that such an announcement would be very difficult to make. Personally, he remembered that last year he had had to submit in public session, first to the Council and then to the Committee of the Assembly, the results of the Committee's work. In making these statements, he had felt throughout how inadequate they were and what an insufficient idea they gave of the importance of the work accomplished.

M. DE CASTRO proposed that the Press should be admitted to all meetings. The presence of one or two Press representatives would in no way embarrass the work of the Committee.

Mlle. BONNEVIE supported this proposal.

The CHAIRMAN asked the Committee to take a decision successively on the following points :

(1) Should all the meetings be public ?

This motion was put to the vote and was not adopted.

(2) Should the Committee hold a public meeting ?

This motion was adopted.

(3) Should the Press be admitted to all meetings ?

This motion was not adopted.

(4) Should *communiqués* be issued to the Press ?

This motion was adopted.

M. BANNERJEA urged that a vote should be taken on his proposal to admit the Press to meetings, subject to a contrary decision being taken by the Chairman or by the Vice-Chairman.

This proposal was not adopted.

45. RESULTS OF THE ENQUIRY ON THE CONDITION OF INTELLECTUAL LIFE IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that the enquiry in Europe had been entrusted to M. de Reynold, who had attached to himself M. Castella, M. Luchaire, M. Dopsch and Professor de Halecki. The reports on the situation in America would be submitted by M. Reverdin and M. de Castro. M. Bannerjea and Dr. Nitobé would submit reports on the situation of intellectual life in Asia. Finally, M. William Martin would give the results of his enquiry into the situation among musicians.

(a) *Reports of M. de Reynold.*

M. DE REYNOLD recalled the fact that the enquiry into the state of intellectual life had been decided upon at the first session of the Committee and that in November 1922 the members entrusted with the enquiry had held a preliminary conference to consider the draft questionnaire which had been sent to the different countries.

He, personally, had been entrusted with the direction of the enquiry in the following countries : Switzerland, Germany, the Netherlands, the Scandinavian countries and Luxemburg. He had also pursued an enquiry into the situation of the intellectual portion of the Russian refugees. As it was altogether impossible to proceed to an enquiry on the spot, he had found intermediaries in each country. He could say that in general he had found that intellectual quarters in the countries with which he was concerned were somewhat repugnant even to the idea of an enquiry. He had had to devote most of the one or two months at his disposal before the current meeting to an exchange of correspondence, but results were beginning to come in and he was now in a position to submit a preliminary report on the state of scientific life in Germany, founded upon information which he had received from the "Notgemeinschaft für Deutsche Wissenschaft". Further, Mlle. Bonnevie had been good enough, in collaboration with Norwegian specialists, to prepare a report on the state of the natural sciences in Norway. This report was a model of its kind.

Thanks to M. Huitzinga and to M. van Eysinga, and to their colleagues at the University of Leyden and at universities of the Netherlands, it had been possible to prepare a report, chiefly statistical, on university life in the Netherlands.

Despite the difficulty encountered in obtaining accurate scientific data from the Russian refugees, it had been possible to prepare another report upon intellectual life among the Russian refugees.

Other reports were in preparation, one concerning the situation of students in Germany and others on intellectual life in Denmark and Sweden. These latter countries had been particularly difficult to deal with.

As regards Germany, the enquirer had found a certain spirit of particularism and mistrust with regard to the enquiry. Generally, the rule could be laid down that the more critical the material situation in which an intellectual circle found itself the more difficult it was to obtain replies from such a circle.

As regards the method adopted for the preparation of the reports, he pointed out that there was a certain contrast between his own and that of, *e.g.*, M. Luchaire. He and his collaborators had kept as far as possible to the questionnaire. They gave statistical details and refrained from any too general a summary of the situation. The conclusions were drawn from the facts themselves as they appeared in the documents. Personally, he thought that only when the statistical and official enquiry was terminated would the Committee be able to go further, to proceed to a general appreciation of the situation and to weigh up its considerable elements.

His own enquiry had dealt with three classes of intellectual circles : those of the former neutral countries which, in appearance at least, were prosperous; German intellectual circles, which were very seriously affected by the economic crisis; and Russian refugee circles, which were in a tragic situation and which should be helped urgently. Even in the former neutral countries intellectual life was suffering very materially from the economic crisis, and also from the indifference of the Governments, of the population and even of the general youth of the country to the questions of science and art.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. de Reynold for the remarkable work which he had accomplished, to which he had given the best of his intellect and enthusiasm.

(b) *Reports of M. Castella.*

M. CASTELLA, M. de Reynold's collaborator for Switzerland and Luxemburg, explained that he had made two reports, one on the state of historical studies in Switzerland and the other on the universities in Switzerland. He would shortly lay on the table a further report on Luxemburg.

As regards the Swiss universities, he had been at some pains to obtain information, but he had only been able to accomplish his work through the collaboration of M. E. de Waldkirch, Director of the Swiss University Bureau at Bern. In Switzerland there was a general crisis in the higher intellectual life. Courses were becoming more and more utilitarian ; the young

men, who were anxious to complete their training as soon as possible in order to find work, were neglecting general culture.

As regards historical studies in Switzerland, he had applied to the university professors, to the historical societies and to publishers. He was happy to say that, in spite of the crisis through which every science was passing, historical studies were in a prosperous condition and the public continued to be interested in its national past.

He was also preparing other reports. In particular, he had entered into relations with the Swiss Federation of Intellectual Workers, which included eighteen societies, with the Society of Swiss Authors, which was not affiliated with the Federation of Intellectual Workers, with the doctors, with the technical institutions, with the Commercial University of St. Gall, and with such Libraries and students societies as would give him information upon the views of the young men.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Castella for his excellent work.

(c) *Reports of M. Julien Luchaire.*

M. LUCHAIRE recalled the fact that he had laid on the table nine reports on the vast and difficult subjects which he had chosen. The memoranda which he now submitted should not be considered as exhaustive treatises but rather as a method of approaching the subject. He recalled the fact that his enquiry was concerned with the state of intellectual life in the following countries : Belgium, Spain, France and Italy. He would now submit several notes concerning intellectual life in France, a work on Belgium and a work on Italy. As regards Spain, he was waiting for an opportunity of visiting that country in order to conclude his enquiry. He was convinced that it was only on the spot that it was possible to settle the great problems raised by each country.

M. de Reynold had emphasised the differences between the methods followed for the drawing-up of the reports. It seemed to him that the Committee should determine exactly the extent and the method of the enquiry which it had set on foot. He thought, however, that there was no contradiction between the method chosen by M. de Reynold and his own method. They were, rather, complementary. While it was necessary to obtain exact information, it should not be forgotten that a general statistical statement on intellectual life was at the moment impossible, for data were lacking on many points, and this was why he had thought it desirable to submit a note on this special question. Questions would have to be asked of the bodies or associations concerned with statistics ; there would have to be in each country a sort of scientific observatory of intellectual life. He had applied to the International Institute of Statistics, which had replied that it proposed shortly to consider the question of intellectual statistics.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation was open to two criticisms. It was reproached, on the one hand, for confining itself to problems of a too special nature, and, on the other hand, for doing nothing detailed. The best reply was to show that the Committee was reaching practical conclusions and also that it did not shrink from considering the more important problems of intellectual life.

In his report on the crisis in pure science in France, he had reached the same conclusion as M. de Reynold and M. Castella. All the evidence went to show that there was a diminution of the interest taken in pure science.

On the other hand, art was also passing through a crisis. Although it could be said that, perhaps, never had there existed so fine and so broad a conception of art and that never had interest in the subject been as widely diffused, it should also be recognised that never before had there been such reason to fear a profound deterioration in the standards of taste.

In the preparation of his reports on Belgium, he had found eagerness in Belgian circles to reply to his questions. It would be possible to draw up a complete statistical table on intellectual life in Belgium.

His first report on intellectual life in Italy was only a preface, devoted to one special phenomenon in that country : namely, the intensive movement towards a renaissance of culture, guided by the responsible authorities who had been for many years concerned to direct the intellectual life of the Italian people.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Luchaire for the excellent work which he had accomplished in spite of great difficulties. He was personally of opinion that the problem of the diversity of methods raised by M. de Reynold could not perhaps be solved on the lines of unification. A certain freedom should be left to the enquirers. Let each of them adopt methods suited to his temperament and to the subject which he had in hand.

SECOND MEETING

held on July 26th, 1923, at 3.30 p.m.

Present : The members present at the previous meeting.

46. RESULTS OF THE ENQUIRY INTO THE STATE OF INTELLECTUAL LIFE IN THE VARIOUS COUNTRIES (*continued*).

(a) *Report of M. Dopsch on Austria.*

Dr. NITOBÉ stated that M. Dopsch, formerly Rector of the University of Vienna, who had not been able to attend the session, had prepared a detailed report in German, more than one hundred pages long, accompanied by a French and English translation. The report had arrived too late to be reneographed and distributed. The Secretariat thought that a summary would be more practical, and he had been entrusted with the duty of preparing this summary, which had been distributed in French and in English.

The first part of the report contained a general statement on the situation of intellectual life in Austria and a memorandum covering more than fifty institutions, *e.g.*, universities, museums, libraries and other scientific or official organisations. The second part of the report gave a more exact and lifelike idea of the conditions of life for writers, artists, actors, etc. The report was a profound, substantial and objective study of intellectual life in Austria. The impression produced by it was a painful one, but nevertheless the document was of an absolutely scientific nature and its tone was thoroughly dignified. He hoped that members of the Committee would find time to read the original report or at least the summary which had been distributed. It appeared from the report that the appeal issued last year by the Committee in favour of Austrian intellectuals was more than justified by the facts, *viz.*, bad housing conditions, lack of heating and lighting, university salaries lower than those of laboratory assistants, misery among the intellectual classes, and a general decadence in artistic taste and in scientific activity, which contrasted strangely with the triumph of the *nouveaux riches*.

Such was the general impression to be got from the report.

The CHAIRMAN thanked Dr. Nitobé for his instructive and interesting summary. If the Committee agreed, he proposed to thank M. Dopsch for his very ample report and to tell him at the same time how greatly the Committee regretted that it had not been possible for him to attend the meetings of the current session to which he had been invited.

M. RUFFINI supported this proposal, which was *unanimously adopted*.

(b) *Reports of Professor de Halecki.*

Professor DE HALECKI stated that he had been entrusted with the enquiry in twelve countries : the Baltic Provinces, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary and the Balkan countries, together with the Free City of Danzig and Constantinople. It would be impossible for him to supply information on each of these countries. He referred the Committee to the report (Annex 1), where the first results of his enquiry were to be found.

As regards the methods followed, his own somewhat resembled those of M. de Reynold, who had, however, attempted to arrive as quickly as possible at a general conspectus of the situation and had already made enquiries of specialists.

It had been said at the previous meeting that methods should and could be different. This was the more true because, in addition to subjective differences, there were the differences to be noted in each of the countries enquired into. The enquiry in Central and Eastern Europe presented peculiar difficulties, for it was concerned with little-known countries where profound changes had been caused by the war. In these countries he had encouraged the formation of national committees on intellectual co-operation, which had facilitated the work by expediting replies. He did not wish to press the question of national committees, since it would be discussed later by the Committee. He would give, by way of example, certain indications on four particular countries, *viz.*, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland and Czechoslovakia (Annex 1).

He wished, finally, to make certain remarks of a general nature. One of the most frequent criticisms had been that the Committee was engaged in too theoretical an enquiry. As a matter of fact, he had found in all these countries a very lively interest in the enquiry. He had received numerous very touching letters thanking the Committee for its interest in these countries, and he wished to state that, in the countries where there was an acute economic crisis, the work necessitated by the enquiry had always been of a completely disinterested nature.

At the outset, he had been apprehensive of deriving a pessimistic impression from the enquiry. As a matter of fact, despite great material difficulties, which seem to be particularly serious in Hungary, the general result was most encouraging. Intellectual life in these countries, the majority of which owed their independence to the late war, had undergone an extraordinary development (creation of new universities, learned societies, research institutions, libraries, etc.). Moreover, this development was encouraged by the Government. This encouraging fact was of great importance for the Committee's enquiry.

The replies of these countries would suffice to prove that European civilisation was by no means condemned to death, as certain persons had seemed to fear. In the course of passing through a critical period, there could be noted in about ten countries which were most severely

hit a spontaneous desire for relief and for collaboration with the great Western countries. It was necessary that this effort should find in the countries economically more favoured the encouragement which it deserved. The question was not so much one of financial support as of intellectual assistance, which would allow these countries to come out of their isolation by means of exchanges of professors and students and, above all, of books and periodicals.

He had noted further that, despite sharp political controversies which still persisted, nothing drew these nations of Central and Eastern Europe together to the same extent as a common effort for the development of intellectual life. He drew the conclusion that these results clearly indicated that the enquiry should be pursued, since to break it off would cause acute disappointment in all these countries.

The Commission would also, he thought, have to take a detailed decision on the subject of the publication of the reports to which he had referred.

The CHAIRMAN warmly thanked Professor de Halecki for the valuable information he had given and noted the encouraging impression which was to be derived from it.

(c) *Reports of M. Reverdin.*

M. REVERDIN stated that he had been entrusted with the work of preparing the ground for an enquiry relative to the United States. Thanks to Mr. Millikan's suggestions and to information which he obtained from other sources, he had been able to draw up lists of higher educational establishments, academies, learned societies and eminent specialists. As regards the former, he had addressed the questionnaire to one hundred and twenty-two universities, colleges and technical institutions. Twenty-five replies had already been received and there was no doubt that many others would arrive in the near future.

He had also drawn up a list of specialists representing mathematics, physics, the natural sciences, letters and the humanities. He had already received more than half the replies. Other specialists had told him that they were preparing their replies during the course of the university vacation. He had also sent the questionnaire to sixteen great academies and to a whole series of learned societies. The replies received testified to a great interest in and a real sympathy for the work undertaken. They contained the most precise details and gave most lucid information on scientific life in general.

With the aid of the information received to date, he had prepared four reports : one relative to universities and colleges (considered in the specially American sense of these words), in which he dealt with all questions of organisation, administration and education arising out of the subject ; a second report upon the chief academies ; a third report on several foundations which were particularly helpful to intellectual life (the Carnegie Foundation, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Smithsonian Institute) ; and a fourth report which reproduced *in extenso* a note supplied by Professor Allyn A. Young of the University of Harvard on the state of the economic sciences in the United States.

As regards other courses of scientific training, he had received, or he would shortly receive, information concerning history, geology, geography, psychology and the physical sciences. He had also taken soundings with regard to certain of the arts, and was getting ready to collect information on the organisation of libraries, pedagogic institutions, etc.

One of the chief difficulties of an enquiry addressed to universities and learned societies arose from the very considerable number of such bodies in the United States.

The general results of the enquiry showed that disinterested scientific life was making great progress in the United States. The general impression was thoroughly optimistic, despite certain complaints as to the lack of funds.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Reverdin for the trouble he had taken and for the most instructive documents which he had communicated to the Committee.

(d) *Report of M. de Castro.*

M. DE CASTRO stated that it was not possible for him to submit at the current meeting the results of the enquiry which he had undertaken into the state of intellectual life in Latin America, in view of the fact that he had not yet received the answers to the questionnaires which he had sent out. Although, however, he could not at the moment submit the statistical documents (which would be sent to the Committee later), he would nevertheless like to say a few words on the progress of intellectual life in Latin America, since this progress was apparent and considerable. Others doubtless were more competent to formulate a considered judgment on the question, but he was glad to be able to speak on the subject, since, in his capacity of member of various associations and scientific academies in South American countries, it was very pleasant for him to be able to speak not only on behalf of Brazil but also on behalf of the other countries of Latin America.

He pointed, in the first place, to a phenomenon of some importance, *viz.* the efforts which all these countries were making to know one another better, and the efforts towards intellectual solidarity which were manifesting themselves in various forms.

From the point of view of education, the progress made was considerable. Not only were new faculties and schools continually being opened but the number of students was increasing daily, as would be seen from the statistical documents to be submitted later. The budgets of the ministries of public instruction in the various countries were becoming more and more considerable, and large sums were being devoted to scientific and artistic educational institutions.

There was an ever-increasing development in pure scientific research. He gave several examples, *e.g.* The Oswald Cruz Institute of Rio de Janeiro, to which several important

scientific discoveries were due ; the Natural History Museum at Rio de Janeiro ; the Cancer Institute at Buenos Aires ; the La Plata Museum ; the Biological Institute of Mexico, etc. As regards literary studies, intellectual life was in full progress and development in Latin America. He recalled the fact that, in view of the importance of such studies in Brazil, there had just been created at the Faculty of Letters in Lisbon a Chair of Brazilian Literature, and that M. le Gentil, at the Sorbonne, was giving a course of lectures on Brazilian literature.

He alluded to the important part played in this development by the Brazilian Academy, which had just been fully recognised by the French Academy, which had served it as a model. France had just made a gift to the Brazilian Academy of the palace which had been built for the Centenary Exhibition at Rio de Janeiro, and a delegation consisting of M. Sorrant, M. Chevrillon and M. Donnay was about to leave on a visit to the Brazilian Academy.

These facts were proof of the importance which Brazilian intellectual life had acquired in the eyes of the world. The documents which would be submitted to the Committee when the enquiry was finished would confirm this brief summary.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. de Castro for having been kind enough, despite his innumerable duties in professorial and research work and as director of a faculty, to find time to make this interesting summary of the intellectual life of South American countries, which was a most interesting subject and not sufficiently well known.

(e) *Reports of M. Bannerjea.*

M. BANNERJEA wished to be as brief as possible, the more so because he proposed in the near future to submit two reports in which he would outline the situation in India from the intellectual point of view.

He had got into touch with Government officials, universities, learned societies and specialists. The Government of India had supplied him with very valuable and ample information, and a great number of savants and educationalists had promised him their help for the purpose of obtaining as complete replies as possible to the questionnaire.

The situation in India was a very special one. There was a comparatively small number which enjoyed the privileges of education. On the other hand there was a mass and volume of illiteracy, owing to inadequate facilities for compulsory primary education, sufficient to stagger the imagination. Hardly more than 10% of men and 1% of women were literate. The number of students was very considerable. Students in India in universities were ten times more numerous than all the students of English universities put together. The University of Calcutta alone claimed as many students as those admitted to all the English universities.

The aim pursued by Indian educationalists was to use the achievements and results of Western civilisation as a vehicle for the development of a virile synthetic culture which might be genuinely Indian and yet progressive and scientific — a contribution, in fact, from the Eastern standpoint to the intellectual life of the world.

The employment of a foreign language as the medium of secondary and university education had up to the moment rendered a grasp of various subjects difficult and the prospects of creative effort quite remote for the majority. In spite of these obvious disadvantages, however, there was a steadily increasing number of Indian savants and scholars who could hold their own with the scientists and savants of contemporary Europe. There was a strong reaction in India against a superficial system of education whose primary object had been to supply recruits for clerical and administrative services.

There were, of course, certain difficulties. Text-books were drawn up by English savants, and too often the need for success in examinations compelled students to absorb the contents of these text-books without gaining a real comprehension of their meaning. Nevertheless, the students were beginning, through the presence of public opinion, to realise that the end of education was not merely to learn by rote what other persons had prescribed but to stimulate originality and vitality of thought. Education in India had not been sufficiently utilitarian and practical in aim and scope to ensure for its students a useful and remunerative career, nor had it been sufficiently intensive and specialised to make for profound scholarship and creative research. For some time, there had been a noticeably better understanding between the authorities and public opinion, and, thanks to mutual good-will, the results obtained would be more and more important. Many students and professors wished to see established in the universities, faculties of foreign languages (French, Italian and German), in view of the increasing number of students and savants who were visiting Europe.

Education in all its grades was very poorly paid in India, and this was prejudicial to the recruitment of an efficient educational staff. Students and professors were very favourable to the idea of exchanges of professors, which would allow relations to be established between Indian culture and the culture of the various European countries, would favour the development of amicable relations between the universities and would thus stimulate intellectual life.

There was not only a revolt against the stultifying effects of an artificial system of education, but constructive efforts were everywhere in evidence, prompted by the desire to develop originality and initiative in students. One might refer to the Sir J. C. Bose Research Institute in Calcutta, where students carried on post-graduate research under proper guidance ; also to the Institute of Chemical Research under the direction of Dr. Sir P. C. Roy, the famous author of the "History of Hindu Chemistry".

In art and music, as in the humanities, the desire was to get away from imitative functions and to emphasise the need for laying sound foundations for development. Rabindra Nath Tagore was developing Indian art in consonance with modern needs ; while Rabindra

Nath Tagore was conducting new experiments in a system of education more affiliated to the Indian time of development, both in his school at Shantiniketan and at his International University.

The vital need of education in India was a thorough overhauling of the present system, reform of secondary and university instruction and the weeding-out of features which embarrassed and retarded mental growth. Nor could the needs of primary education be neglected without vitiating the whole *atmosphere* in which secondary and higher teaching was imparted.

For the moment, however, it was a great consolation to realise that the study of Indian history, philosophy, economics and agriculture, among other things, was being placed on a scientific basis.

The CHAIRMAN expressed his gratitude to Professor Bannerjea for his very striking summary. He was sure that the leaflets which M. Bannerjea had been good enough to promise would be most interesting.

(f) *Reports of Dr. Nitobé.*

Dr. NITOBÉ stated that he had sent the questionnaire to twenty-five different institutions in Indo-China, China, Japan, Corea and the Philippine Islands. Up to the present he had only received five replies, of which one came from Indo-China, two from China and two from Japan. These replies showed that in the Far East there were, so to speak, three stages of intellectual independence.

The University of Indo-China was French in constitution, the French language only being employed in it. Its object was not so much to stimulate original research as to turn out officials for the various administrative and technical departments. It was of recent origin (1917), did not confer diplomas and was, in fact, under the ægis of French intellectual supremacy.

The two reports from China came from the Ecole Normale of Peking and from the Technical Institution of Peking, which were both official institutions. The two languages in use were Chinese and English (several professors were English or American) but the Chinese language had no equivalents for technical terms, so that intellectual independence, although more developed than in the University of Indo-China, where instruction was only given in French, was nevertheless incomplete. From the material point of view, one of the chief difficulties arose from the fact that the professors were very irregularly paid.

The two Japanese replies emanated from the University of Kyushu, which was one of the most recent imperial universities (containing three faculties: applied sciences, agriculture and medicine), and from the older University of Kyoto (containing seven faculties: medicine, law, applied sciences, letters, science, political economy and agriculture). In these universities, instruction was given in Japanese, but knowledge of at least one foreign language (chiefly English) was required. That Japan has attained complete intellectual independence is shown in the fact that the Japanese language now contains all the necessary technical terms and is used in all University lectures.

In view of the small number of replies received to date, he did not think that he could formulate any general conclusions. He had prepared a report on the teaching of foreign languages in Japan, and hoped in a few months time to receive replies from other countries.

The CHAIRMAN thanked Dr. Nitobe for the interesting details which he had supplied and stated that the Committee would be most happy to receive the leaflets which he had been good enough to promise upon one particular question, the importance of which was considerable.

(g) *Report of M. William Martin.*

M. William MARTIN, representative of the International Labour Office, stated that the reports which he had submitted differed slightly from the preceding ones. The method followed had been that originally decided upon by the Committee last year. He had therefore proceeded to take soundings as regards the situation of certain intellectual workers, *viz.* musicians.

The enquiry had presented certain difficulties arising out of the fact that the subject of study was diverse and complex and that the enquiry concerned seventeen countries. In certain countries musicians had assimilated themselves to manual workers and had shared in the advantages obtained by such workers. In other countries, on the contrary, they were classed as intellectual workers and their position was as unfavourable as that of most intellectual workers.

Musicians were grouped in various classes (composers, orchestral musicians, musical professors, etc.), the situation of which classes was not similar. Further, it had been somewhat difficult to obtain replies from certain countries *e.g.*, Belgium, France and the United States had not replied to the questionnaire).

He had therefore had, in practice, to proceed to several simultaneous enquiries. Further, in respect of certain countries, he had been able to undertake a personal enquiry on the spot.

The report submitted contained two parts: in the first place, a general survey of the situation, and then annexes containing the more technical information resulting from the reports supplied. One point had struck him. The situation of music and musicians was not always such as might be expected from the economic situation of the country under consideration. It was somewhat paradoxical to note that the countries where the situation of musicians was most prosperous were England and Austria. On the other hand, there was a very grave crisis

in Germany and a somewhat serious crisis in Italy. Between these two extremes every possible shade of difference was to be found. The situation in Switzerland was somewhat like that in England. In Poland and in Hungary, on the contrary, it approximated rather to the situation in Germany.

Beyond these national diversities there was to be found a great divergence between the various classes of musicians. Orchestral musicians, thanks to their power of organisation, had obtained considerable material advantages, which, incidentally, had not always been of advantage to artistic development properly so called. On the other hand, musical education and, above all, private education was in a very bad state, chiefly in countries with a depreciated exchange. The situation of soloists and composers lay between these two extremes.

The two chief evils were insufficiency of salaries and unemployment. Hence arose conflicts between the various classes of musicians (a conflict of professors against *dilettantes*, agitation against courtesy diplomas or diplomas of little value, agitation against military musicians with fixed salaries and against the immigration of foreign musicians).

The enquiry had raised great hopes, chiefly of a practical nature, but these hopes were also contradictory hopes, *viz.* development of international exchanges and the prohibition of immigration. The chief desiderata were as follows: a better legal organisation of the profession, the creation of chambers of musicians, State assistance by means of import restrictions or subsidies, and a more equitable regulation of composers' rights.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. William Martin for his amply documented enquiry, which would constitute a real model for an enquiry on the lines of one of the methods originally decided upon. He also thanked the International Labour Office for the most efficient help which it had given to the Committee.

THIRD MEETING

held on July 27th, 1923, at 10 a.m.

Present: All the members present at the last meeting.

47. PUBLICATION OF THE RESULTS OF THE ENQUIRY INTO THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL LIFE.

The CHAIRMAN reminded the Committee that he had received a number of reports distinguished for their size and importance. He asked to what extent they should be published.

M. DE REYNOLD thought that the publication of these reports would provide an excellent method of propaganda. They could be either bound in volumes or else published in a periodical review, should the Committee decide to start one. Their publication in a periodical review would be very advantageous and would perhaps still further increase the general interest taken in them. In addition to the reports of the persons who had undertaken the enquiry, other reports, such as the preliminary report drawn up by Professor de Halecki and M. Ruffini's Report on Scientific Property, should be published at the same time.

M. RUFFINI was of opinion that the Committee had collected a considerable number of documents of which the historical value regarding the state of culture after the war was incalculable. This collection of documents would be lost if it remained in the archives of the Secretariat and in the libraries of the members of the Committee. Whatever was to be the future of the Committee, it could never be said that it had done nothing in the cause of science if it published the results of this general enquiry, for there was no general collection of information which could be compared with it.

M. LORENTZ was also of opinion that it would be most unfortunate if the results of so important an enquiry were lost. It should, nevertheless, not be forgotten that the collection of reports already submitted to the Committee and those which were in course of preparation formed one or more very large volumes. What would be of the greatest use would be the publication of a summary and a chapter of introduction, written with a view to interesting the largest possible number of readers and containing a general sketch of the whole.

Mlle. BONNEVIE thought that the results of this enquiry would be of interest to all universities. She desired personally to propose that the minutes of the meetings of the previous day, when the reports had been summarised by their authors, should be completed, printed as soon as possible and sent to the universities. Further, all the original reports ought to be kept in the library of the League of Nations where anyone could consult them.

M. LUCHAIRE thought that all the proposals which had been made were useful and could be combined. At the moment it appeared necessary to publish without delay the principal works already finished in order that the Assembly and the public at large should be able to read them. Further, it was essential that the public should remain informed of the work of the Committee as that work developed. This could be brought about by publishing periodical leaflets which might contain, in particular, extracts from the minutes, as Mlle. Bonnevie had proposed. Further, a summary of the Committee's work would be very useful, not only to the intellectual world but also to the public at large, and small brochures of a few pages on the great problems dealt with by the Committee could be published.

All three methods of publication were possible at once. An agreement might be concluded with an international review regarding the publication of the work.

M. William MARTIN pointed out one or two difficulties regarding the publication of the reports in volume form ; he said that the reports already submitted to the Committee were only partial ones which did not exhaust any of the subjects treated. Publication in volume form at the moment would perhaps be giving too final a complexion to the work. He pointed out, with regard to the publication of the minutes, that the persons who had conducted the enquiry had made too short a summary of their work at the preceeding meeting and he proposed that they should be asked to draft new summaries.

The CHAIRMAN asked the following question : Should the Committee decide to publish a first volume, ought that volume to contain only the reports relating to the enquiry or in addition M. Ruffini's report, together with preliminary reports prepared by the Secretariat ?

M. RUFFINI pointed out that the enquiry must be regarded as a whole and its results would have to be published in one volume. He did not think that this volume ought also to contain a report on scientific property. Further, the final text of the report had not been drafted.

The CHAIRMAN said that, if the Committee wished to publish immediately part of the enquiry, the motives which led it to do so were, above all, practical, and that it proposed to do so in order to give an idea of the importance of the work which it had undertaken. In these circumstances he thought it essential that the public at large should also have M. Ruffini's report before them as soon as possible.

M. REVERDIN said that, in addition to the reports prepared by the persons who had conducted the enquiry, the Commission had received various memoranda prepared by specially qualified persons in various countries. It was important that some of these memoranda should be published at the same time as the reports. Those who had written the documents would thus see that their work had been used as quickly as possible, which would afford them satisfaction and at the same time serve as an encouragement to others to do likewise.

Mlle. BONNEVIE thought that the Committee ought to bear in mind two points of view. The Committee had to concern itself with immediate interests and also with the future. From the point of view of immediate possibilities she thought that the reports ought to be published in the form of revised minutes which would be distributed to the Assembly and either distributed or sold to the public. They would also be sent to the universities, and this might induce those who had not yet replied to the questionnaire to do so as soon as possible.

As far as the future was concerned, financial considerations governed it. Periodical publications of small volumes on special subjects might perhaps be contemplated.

M. PÉRIGORD thought that he was incorporating the wishes of Professor Hale and Mr. Millikan in saying that the United States was, above all, anxious to know the exact situation of intellectual life in Europe. The reports hitherto submitted appeared, in their present form, incomplete and might arouse criticism, but even such criticism would be of use.

In reply to a question from the CHAIRMAN, Dr. NITOBÉ reminded the Committee that for the current year the sum of 16,000 frs. had been set aside for publications.

M. BANNERJEA stated that too large a volume might frighten the general public. He would prefer the publication of summaries, which should not, however, be too fragmentary.

M. LAFONTAINE pointed out that one of the reports had been entrusted to the International Labour Office. He asked whether that office was ready to publish its report.

M. William MARTIN replied that the International Labour Office could take no decision on the matter before it had received the Committee's opinion. The report of which M. Lafontaine spoke did not possess, he thought, the requisite scientific exactitude for a place to be found for it amongst the publications of the International Labour Office.

Whatever decision was taken regarding the publication of the enquiry into musicians, it ought, in his opinion, to be specified that the International Labour Office had actually worked for the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Further, it would be necessary for the Committee, if it desired the publication of the report on musicians, to make an official request on the subject to the International Labour Office.

M. LAFONTAINE asked that the secretariat of the Committee should make arrangements with the International Labour Office regarding the publication of the enquiry into the conditions of life and work of musicians.

Mr. LOWES DICKINSON expressed some apprehension as to the size of the proposed publication. He was afraid that when the second and third volume of the enquiry were read their contents would be already out of date. Intellectual life was passing through a period of transition, but it was to be hoped that in a few years the crisis would be over.

Mlle. BONNEVIE proposed that a small sub-committee should be appointed to draw up a list of the documents to be published, with power to reduce the length of the reports if necessary, while, at the same time, preserving all the facts which they contained.

M. DE CASTRO supported this proposal.

The CHAIRMAN, in summing up the views put forward, reminded the Committee that it had three proposals before it :

- (1) The full publication in their entirety of the reports.
- (2) Publication of summaries of these reports.
- (3) Publications of the minutes.

He thought that the members of the Committee appeared to be generally of the opinion that all three proposals should be taken into account. Further, it appeared also in the opinion of the members of the Committee that publication should take place immediately. Only a special publications committee could assign the comparative priority of these requirements.

The Committee decided to set up immediately a sub-committee on publications, which would present a report at one of the last meetings of the session.

The sub-committee was composed as follows : M. Lorentz, M. de Reynold, Mr. Lowes Dickinson (substitute for Professor Gilbert Murray), M. Luchaire, expert of the Committee, Professor de Halecki, and M. Vigier, members of the Secretariat.

48. METHOD OF PURSUING THE ENQUIRY INTO THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL LIFE.

M. DE REYNOLD asked the Committee to take a decision on the following point: Ought each enquirer to pursue his own methods, or did the Committee wish to draw up a calendar?

M. LUCHAIRE shared M. de Reynold's opinion regarding the practical difficulties encountered by persons conducting the enquiry.

As far as he was concerned, he had up to the moment been able to submit a single report only on Italy, because he had only lately been able to go to the country. He had not yet submitted any report concerning Spain, because he had been unable to complete on the spot his enquiry on the intellectual life of that country.

Regarding the method, he did not share the fears expressed by M. de Reynold as to the danger of the lack of a uniform method. The most widely divergent methods should be used, because what was required was the presentation of as complete a picture as possible of the state of intellectual life. For this purpose the use of a single method would be insufficient.

M. LORENTZ thought that the enquiry ought to be completed. It would be useful if a complete picture of the state of intellectual life as it stood immediately after the world-war should be obtained. Once, however, the enquiry was completed, the statistical work of intellectual life should not at the same time be brought to an end. The periodical publication of statistics would be of great use.

The CHAIRMAN was personally of the opinion that the enquiry should be proceeded with indefinitely. The object of the Committee was to solve problems in connection with intellectual co-operation, and it was, above all, the enquiry which would provide the facts in such problems. Not only, therefore, should the statistical enquiry, as M. Lorentz had suggested, be continued, but also a general enquiry.

Further, when the enquiry on the present crisis was finished, it would be comparatively easy to keep up to date by means of a periodical in which would be published documents on the situation of intellectual life in the various countries.

M. LORENTZ thought that the principal object of the Committee was to encourage and facilitate intellectual co-operation. The enquiry which it had undertaken was very useful in shedding light on the present situation. It would, however, be less useful in normal times. He feared that the Committee might undertake too heavy a task should it propose to keep abreast of all future developments of intellectual life.

The CHAIRMAN pointed out that, as a result of the present enquiry, the Committee would not fail to receive periodical information which would enable it continually to keep the enquiry up to date.

M. LUCHAIRE added that there could be no question of endeavouring to cover the whole world-wide field of intellectual effort. The problem with which the Committee was concerned was the organisation of intellectual life. In continuing the enquiry the Committee would always keep abreast of questions raised by this problem. Certain questions at the moment were of a transitory nature and would disappear in a few years. Others, however, were of a more permanent description.

M. LORENTZ did not wish to say he would not be pleased to see the activity of the Committee continuing for many years. He had wished above all that some practical result should be achieved by it by making use of such results of the enquiry as were in its hands at the moment.

Mlle. BONNEVIE shared this opinion. The Committee was dealing with two practical questions: first to assist intellectual life in countries where it was threatened, and secondly to promote exchanges between the universities. In order to realise these two aims, it would be useful if the enquiry which it had undertaken were finished. Once, however, the present enquiry was ended, she did not think that the Committee need renew it periodically simply in order to keep it up to date. It should not be forgotten that many universities were working with a reduced staff and would not willingly reply to questionnaires addressed to them for the purpose of carrying out an enquiry which did not immediately show promise of some practical result. The reason why the Norwegian universities had replied to the questionnaire was because Mlle. Bonnevie had explained to them that the Committee needed their reply in order to develop the scheme for the exchange of professors.

The programme regarding the drawing-up of statistics of intellectual life was too large for the Committee. It would be sufficient if it asked Governments to draw up statistics on intellectual life by means of their central statistical organisations.

M. BANNERJEA supported this last proposal.

The CHAIRMAN was of opinion that there seemed no fundamental difference between members of the Committee regarding the methods to be adopted for carrying on the enquiry. It

would be useful to unify the methods if it were found possible to unify the objects, but these appeared to be different in accordance with the country, and, naturally, in accordance with the views of the persons undertaking the enquiry, who, according to their temperament, paid attention to one side of the question or another. On the other hand, one necessity appeared paramount : the adoption of a uniform method of presenting the results of the enquiries.

Fears had been expressed that in pursuing the enquiry the Committee would burden itself with too heavy a task. This fear seemed groundless, because it should not be forgotten that it was impossible to do anything at all unless the Committee was ready to do a great deal. Further, the complementary information which the Committee might receive at some future date should not be excluded.

49. APPOINTMENT OF A SUBSTITUTE FOR DR. MILLIKAN.

The CHAIRMAN informed the Committee that Dr. Hale, entrusted by Dr. Millikan with the duty of finding a substitute for himself among American savants at present in Europe, had just appointed Mr. Wigmore, Dean of the Faculty of Law in the North-Western University of Chicago. Further, Mr. Millikan had already appointed M. Périgord, Professor of Political Economy at the Technical Institute of California and Lecturer to the University of that State.

The Committee could congratulate itself on seeing the United States represented at its current session by M. Périgord and Mr. Wigmore.

FOURTH MEETING

held on July 27th, 1923, at 3.30 p.m.

Present : All the members present at the previous meeting.

50. ORGANISATION OF ASSISTANCE FOR COUNTRIES WHERE INTELLECTUAL LIFE IS PARTICULARLY THREATENED.

The CHAIRMAN called upon Professor de Halecki to set out the conclusions of the report of the Secretariat on the organisation of assistance for countries where intellectual life was particularly threatened (Annex 2).

Professor DE HALECKI pointed out in the first place the results of the appeal issued on behalf of Austria. A sympathetic interest had been evinced in all countries both in Europe and in India, Japan and the United States.

The Secretariat had received numerous requests from various countries in Central and Eastern Europe. It had done its best to transmit these requests to the proper quarter (associations or individuals). Several members of the Committee had been good enough to take part in this work. It was a matter of urgency that the existing organisation should now be perfected. In many countries national committees for intellectual co-operation had been formed and constituted according to the mentality, the requirements, and the organisation of each country. In general, these committees represented intellectual groupings — universities, academies, libraries, etc. (see appendix to Annex 2) and they were all designed to serve as intermediaries between the institutions of the various countries and the secretariat of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

The creation of similar committees in the more favoured countries would permit of the organisation of exchanges in a systematic fashion. He had refrained from any suggestion as to the necessary methods of forming the new national committees, for most of the countries in question were represented on the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation by eminently competent persons who would be able to indicate what existing institutions should be grouped together for this purpose in each country. He thought it would be essential to establish contact between all the national committees which were necessarily different one from another. There should be an exchange of views on the practical means of organising intellectual assistance and of discussing the valuable suggestions put forward by some of these committees. Such contact would ensure a more rapid development of the system of sending books, and would at the same time allow a more precise reply to be given to the requests which had been received. As regards University exchanges, the International Bureau of Information, the creation of which had been recommended by the University Sub-Committee, would be able to act as intermediary.

The CHAIRMAN thanked Professor de Halecki for his work, and for the summary with which he had furnished the Committee.

M. LORENTZ was of opinion that Professor de Halecki's suggestions would ensure the exchange of books and instruments under the best conditions. The creation of special committees, first in the distressed countries and then in countries in a more favourable situation would be most valuable. In the Netherlands there had been for some years a society, the object of which was to supply foreign countries with Dutch scientific publications. This society had been able to meet a great number of requests, despite its somewhat restricted means, and it had supplied numerous publications either gratis or at reduced prices. It would be possible to recognise already existing institutions, to give them official sanction and to collaborate with them. In order to facilitate the work of these committees it would perhaps be possible to try to obtain,

by means of action by the League of Nations, some contribution, however small, from the Governments.

M. William MARTIN wished to point out that one of the methods of aiding distressed countries was to buy from them. The flow of gifts towards distressed countries could be complemented by an inverse movement of purchase of intellectual works, etc.

M. LORENTZ was of opinion that the national committees might work in these two directions.

Mlle. BONNEVIE, enquired whether any appeals had been made with a view to raising funds.

Professor DE HALECKI stated that the requests received were concerned rather with books, instruments, travelling facilities, and exchange of professors.

Mr. LOWES DICKINSON had formulated the following resolutions which he wished to submit to the Committee :

(1) That the work most immediately and urgently incumbent upon this Committee is the giving of aid to the universities in the distressed countries of Europe.

(2) That such aid shall be distributed impartially to the universities of all distressed countries, whether or no they be Members of the League of Nations.

(3) That, for this purpose, the Committee shall endeavour to raise money by application to universities, institutions, and societies in America, and in the less distressed countries in Europe ; and shall enter into relations with any bodies that may be engaged in similar work, such as the Universities Committee of the Imperial War Relief Fund in England.

(4) That a sub-committee be entrusted with the organisation of this work.

In his view the most urgent work was the work of relief for universities and organisations in distress. The Committee would be assured of the support of all countries in this work of immediate relief. The reading of the reports supplied by the enquirers, and his own personal experience had shown him how critical was the situation in all these countries, and particularly in Germany. Further, the question went beyond the bounds of any one country and was a matter of interest to civilisation as a whole. It would not be very easy to carry out this relief work, although certain steps had already been taken to meet the existing distress. He considered that the Council might be asked to intervene with governments, but he relied above all on sums to be obtained from private sources, amongst others from certain American foundations. An appeal might even be made to the universities and to private individuals in the more prosperous countries. The chief point was to make known the urgent need for a solution of this distressing problem.

The CHAIRMAN wished to give Mr. Lowes Dickinson a piece of information in view of the fact that he had not been present at the previous session. Up to the present there had been no question of asking for money. Consequently there had been no question of distributing it. The Committee had thought it necessary to begin by an act of international solidarity, and to draw attention to the difficulties of intellectual work caused by the lack of books and the insufficiency of laboratories. An appeal issued with a view to the collection of funds, and above all to the distribution of such funds, might give rise to certain criticisms, both from the point of view of the practice of the League of Nations and from the point of view of the terms of reference of the Committee.

Dr. NITOBÉ pointed out that the League of Nations had sometimes received sums from certain individuals, but always for very definite purposes.

Mr. LOWES DICKINSON replied that, although this precedent was not yet established, he would yet be inclined to see in it a very happy innovation.

M. DE REYNOLD stated that he had drawn up certain resolutions, the contradiction between which and those of Mr. Lowes Dickinson was only apparent. Both pursued the same object, but by different methods. He recalled the fact that the Committee's first report (Chapter III, page 4) pointed out the urgency of the question, and that the Committee had considered intellectual rather than pecuniary assistance as its chief programme.

How could this intellectual assistance best be furnished ? He would like to make one or two observations on Mr. Lowes Dickinson's text.

Mr. Lowes Dickinson had had only the universities in mind. His point of view was perhaps a little narrow. In Germany, for example, the universities had the support of the State. Certain private institutions (libraries, learned societies, etc.), the scientific importance of which was considerable, had more need of assistance even than the universities.

He also expressed certain doubts as to the advisability of addressing an appeal to America, and he would prefer that the drafting of paragraph 3 of Mr. Lowes Dickinson's proposal should be in less explicit terms.

He read the following proposals :

(1) The Committee warmly supports the creation of national committees on intellectual co-operation as established in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, and congratulates their promoters. It regards these committees as the best means of organising intellectual co-operation and of promoting exchanges.

(2) It decides to extend its organisation, not only to countries which have specially suffered as a result of the war, but also to those whose intellectual life is in the most favourable situation.

(3) It also decides to invite the existing national committees, and any which may in future be established, to appoint delegates to consult with the committee with a view to evolving the most suitable methods of organising intellectual co-operation.

(4) It requests the experts entrusted with the investigation of the condition of intellectual life in countries where it is specially endangered to pursue their enquiries with a view to submitting a report on the most urgent requirements of those countries.

He particularly drew the attention of the Committee to Resolution 4. The Committee was not yet in possession of sufficient information. The reports supplied were only preliminary reports and it was not possible to embark lightly upon relief work, above all in the case of a country as large as Germany. The work would require method and time for development. The best method would therefore be to continue on the path already followed, that was to say, to appoint national committees which should meet with the delegates of the Committee and perhaps continue on the spot investigations already begun.

He should add that according to his personal information at the moment, the German associations would undoubtedly refuse to accept any assistance which might be offered to them. At the same time, relations had already been established between these associations and America. Germany had a representative on the administrative council of the Rockefeller Foundation. The best policy, therefore, would be to carry on the negotiations already begun without appearing to precipitate events, and to persevere in the path already opened up by Professor Halecki.

Mlle. BONNEVIE supported Mr. Lowes Dickinson's proposals in substance, if not in form. During the discussions which had taken place last year, no restriction had been made as to the countries to which intellectual assistance was to be supplied. She thought that this was the duty of the Committee, both in its relations with the League of Nations, which had admitted many non-Member States to its technical committees, and in its relations with the actual countries which furnished the intellectual assistance in a spirit of general solidarity.

She was personally entirely favourable to the immediate action indicated in Mr. Lowes Dickinson's proposal, and thought that it would be possible to issue an appeal for funds. Perhaps paragraph 2 of M. de Reynold's proposal might be somewhat extended, and she would suggest the appointment of a drafting committee to combine the two proposals into a single draft resolution.

M. RUFFINI wished first to point out the unanimity of the Committee upon the work of general solidarity to be undertaken. While recognising the generous spirit of Mr. Lowes Dickinson's proposal, he was somewhat concerned with the practical means which would best allow the objects contemplated to be attained. The assistance which Mr. Lowes Dickinson proposed to give to universities, that was to say to State institutions, might lead to certain legal objections. He thought it preferable that some agreement should be come to with private institutions and with savants. It would be desirable to make full allowance for the position of the rapporteur, in no way to derogate from his authority, and thus to continue the work which had already given positive results.

M. LORENTZ stated that, in his view, paragraph 2 of M. de Reynold's resolution was most explicit. Nevertheless, it might perhaps be possible to insert a formula yet more precise, by speaking of all the countries.

The CHAIRMAN thought that any modification of the text of this paragraph might give rise to certain interpretations which it would be preferable to avoid. In his view, the actual text of M. de Reynold's proposal was perfectly clear if joined to the interpretation which M. de Reynold himself had given to it, and if taken in conjunction with the steps taken by M. de Reynold himself in this direction.

M. LORENTZ did not press his point. He had full confidence in M. de Reynold and, as he had said previously, the actual text of the proposal was sufficiently clear.

Mr. BANNERJEA, while in full agreement in principle with Mr. Lowes Dickinson, recognised that the question involved certain serious practical difficulties. Nevertheless, he rather thought it desirable to make a positive effort which might have great moral influence.

M. PÉRIGORD thought that he might state on behalf of Professor Millikan that he would be in complete agreement with the ideas expressed by Mlle Bonnevie and Mr. Lowes Dickinson. M. Périgord thought, however, that, as the Committee was unanimous on the point, it would be desirable, for the legal and practical reasons explained by the Chairman and M. Ruffini, to accept the actual text of M. de Reynold's proposals.

Mlle. BONNEVIE did not wish to press a question of drafting. If the two proposals could be combined, she would accept the resulting combination. If not, she was in favour of Mr. Lowes Dickinson's proposal. M. de Reynold had stated that the enquiry begun by him in Germany with a view to affording assistance to countries in distress would be pursued, and she had full confidence in his power to conduct the enquiry to advantage.

M. LORENTZ stated that, in his view, all the members of the Committee, including Mr. Lowes Dickinson, could agree to M. de Reynold's proposal for, although it did not provide for an appeal for funds, it in no way excluded this possibility.

Mr. LOWES DICKINSON had no objection to make to M. de Reynold's proposals. The Committee might, therefore, adopt this proposal, and then examine the proposal which he had submitted, which in his view went further.

Mr. BANNERJEA stated that he agreed with paragraphs 1 and 2 of Mr. Lowes Dickinson's proposal, but he thought that, from the practical point of view, paragraph 3 and 4 were open to serious objections.

The CHAIRMAN stated that the Committee now had before it M. de Reynold's proposal, Mr. Lowes Dickinson's proposal, and a proposal to combine the two texts either by a drafting committee or by means of successive votes on the various paragraphs of the proposals. It would be well therefore to begin by putting to the vote M. de Reynold's proposal, in favour of which there seemed to be a decided bias, and then to consider Mr. Lowes Dickinson's proposal.

M. de Reynold's proposal, on being put to the vote, was unanimously adopted.

M. LORENTZ wished to propose the following resolution :

"The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation requests the Council to ask the Governments Members of the League of Nations to be good enough to give their moral and financial support to the work of these national committees."

Mlle. BONNEVIE feared that no very important results would be obtained, in view of the multiplicity of the appeals to governments on the subject of refugees, health questions, etc.

M. LORENTZ thought that, in any case, the procedure might be tried. He himself would make a personal appeal to the Netherlands Government, and he hoped that other members would take similar steps.

M. Lorentz's proposal was unanimously adopted.

Mr. LOWES DICKINSON stated that he differed from M. de Reynold on the following point : He thought that the Committee should collect the funds for the work in hand. According to his personal information, he believed that certain American institutions would be ready to give financial assistance. Above all he would not like to see this method ruled out. It was certainly desirable to continue the collection of facts, but it was yet more urgent to take up as soon as possible the work of giving material assistance. He attached the greatest importance to paragraph 3 of his proposal. M. Lorentz had recommended that steps should be taken with the governments, but it seemed desirable that the Committee should have, so to speak, a second string to its bow. He urged the practical character, the importance and urgency of this proposal.

The CHAIRMAN agreed that paragraph 3 was the essential part of Mr. Lowes Dickinson's proposal. If this paragraph were added to the five paragraphs which had just been adopted, the Committee would have at its disposal a new means of action, and the distribution, through the medium of the national committees of the funds collected, would remove the objection raised against the allocation of this function to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation itself. It would seem, therefore, that the best solution would consist in adding to the four paragraphs proposed by M. de Reynold and to the paragraph proposed by M. Lorentz, which had just been adopted, paragraph 3 of Mr. Lowes Dickinson's proposal, perhaps drafted in a slightly more general form.

Mr. LOWES DICKINSON stated that he was fully prepared to agree to this proposal.

After a discussion, in the course of which M. LORENTZ stated that perhaps an appeal might be made, not only to institutions but even to governments, and M. Ruffini, that the resolution in its combined form constituted a perfectly logical and precise whole, defining within the limits laid down by M. de Reynold, the means of action at the disposal of the Committee, the following paragraph, accepted by Mr. Lowes Dickinson, was submitted to the Committee :

"The Committee requests the Council to authorise it to receive funds from any institution, or from any individual interested in its efforts, which would be placed at the disposal of these national committees."

This paragraph was unanimously adopted.

M. DE HALECKI read the six resolutions which were thus unanimously adopted :

(1) The Committee warmly supports the creation of national committees of intellectual co-operation as established in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, and congratulates their promoters. It regards these committees as the best means of organising intellectual co-operation and of promoting exchanges.

(2) The Committee decides to extend its organisation not only to countries which have specially suffered as a result of the war but also to those whose intellectual life is in a more favourable situation.

(3) The Committee also decides to invite the existing national committees, and any which may in future be established, to appoint delegates to consult with the Committee with a view to examining the most suitable methods of mutual assistance with regard to intellectual work.

(4) The Committee requests the Council to invite Governments Members of the League of Nations to give their moral and financial support to the work of these national committees.

(5) The Committee requests the Council to authorise it to receive funds from any institution or individual interested in its efforts, which would be placed at the disposal of these national committees.

(6) The Committee requests the experts entrusted with the investigation of the condition of intellectual life in countries where it is specially endangered to pursue their enquiries with a view to submitting a report on the most urgent requirements of those countries.

51. ORGANISATION OF RELIEF FOR INTELLECTUALS AMONG THE RUSSIAN REFUGEES.

M. de REYNOLD stated that, in considering the question of the intellectuals among the Russian refugees, he had formed the impression of being in the presence of a real tragedy. More than two million Russian refugees were scattered over the various countries of Europe, and among them were fifteen thousand students and five hundred professors and learned men in a state of the most complete destitution. The intellectuals among the Russian refugees had tried to re-organise Russian intellectual life abroad. They had done their best to pursue their work, to give each other mutual assistance, and to help the students. Committees had been set up to verify the diplomas of students who presented themselves for examination, or of examined students who had been deprived of their diplomas. There had been established at Prague a purely Russian Institute of Law, and at Berlin a Scientific Institute.

The refugees generally were burdened with the most appalling financial difficulties. Men who had occupied the highest situations in their own countries were dying of hunger for the want of one or two dollars a month. It was impossible to remain indifferent in the presence of such distress. He pointed out that by her efforts to improve the position of Russian refugees Czechoslovakia might be said to be systematically preparing for the economic and intellectual reconstruction of Russia.

He had drawn up a certain number of proposals which he had submitted to the Committee, and he would urge above all the importance of the first two. He would like to have in the general scheme of national committees a committee of Russian refugees constituted by the Russian academic union at Prague, and he would like the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to choose as its correspondent a Russian savant from among those whose material circumstances were peculiarly precarious.

His other resolutions consisted of mere suggestions. He was most anxious that the Committee should take all or part of his conclusions into consideration.

The CHAIRMAN thought that it was most important to seek some remedy for this tragic situation. Perhaps the best solution would be to entrust two or three members of the Committee with the task of forming a sub-committee to consider questions relative to Russian Refugees and to Austria. This sub-committee would submit its conclusions for the final decision of the Committee. He proposed as members of the sub-committee M. de Reynold, M. Lorentz and Professor de Halecki.

FIFTH MEETING

held on Saturday, July 28th, 1923, at 10 a.m.

Present : All the members present at the previous meeting.

52. ADOPTION OF M. RUFFINI'S REPORT ON THE PROTECTION OF SCIENTIFIC PROPERTY.

M. RUFFINI gave a summary of his report¹ which concluded with a draft international convention for the protection of scientific property. The convention, to be concluded under the auspices of the League of Nations, would create an international union to take its place among the two existing unions for the protection of industrial, artistic and literary property respectively, and would also have as its administrative organisation the United Berne Bureaux.

The CHAIRMAN thought that the Committee would be unanimous in recognising that the report was most admirable, and constituted a most important example of carefully thought out creative work. The Sub-committee on Intellectual Property had considered the report in the presence of M. Röthlisberger, Director of the Berne Bureaux. While pointing out that the Berne Bureaux had themselves prepared another scheme for the solution of this question, M. Röthlisberger had given his approval in principle to M. Ruffini's draft and had stated that the Berne Bureaux would gladly co-operate in the work of putting it into practice.

M. LORENTZ stated that, after hearing M. Ruffini's ardent and enthusiastic statement, he had no doubt that if, as M. Ruffini said, laws arising from sentiments of justice were good laws, M. Ruffini's law would be a good law. He ventured, however, to express certain fears and doubts. In the first place he hoped that young men would not allow themselves to be influenced by the prospects held out by this law, and by the glamour of the profits which they might draw from its application. He hoped also that savants would not become too pre-occupied with the advantages to be derived from it and would continue, as at present, to take no thought for any questions concerning the priority of invention. Scientific research alone should occupy their time. These, however, were not very serious objections. There were more serious difficulties. One of these arose from the general inter-relation of the ideas which constituted scientific progress. This inter-relation was assuming ever greater and greater complexity, and it was most difficult to say to whom belonged the honour of an invention. As regards wireless telegraphy, for example, one had to go back from Marconi to his master Righi, and from Righi to Hertz, and even from Hertz to Maxwell, Kelvin and Faraday. As

¹ This report is published separately.

regards magnifying lanterns, the holders of patents had quarrelled amongst themselves, but these inventions were themselves based upon discoveries, in respect to which half a dozen savants at least might well dispute priority. It should not be concluded from this objection that the application of M. Ruffini's convention was absolutely impossible. It was certain that if in some cases real inventions could be protected, the object was worthy of attainment.

Another difficulty would arise from the great number of inventions by madmen who would wish to see their priority rights respected. To meet this difficulty it would, he thought, be desirable to make certain not only of the high qualifications of the tribunal to decide upon these questions, but also of the persons who would have the right to submit the cases to the tribunal. The tribunal, he thought, should only take into consideration cases submitted by a certain number of competent persons, *e.g.*, members of a scientific academy.

He was glad that the draft provided for international jurisdiction. This could not be otherwise, since invention was the fruit of the movement of international ideas, and in view of the fact that the question at issue was one of repairing an injustice, there could be no question of excluding the savants of any country.

M. RUFFINI stated that this was certainly his idea. According to the terms of Article 15 the convention was open to any country which would ensure within its borders legal protection for scientific property.

The CHAIRMAN thought that M. Lorentz was right in referring to the continuity in the development of ideas. He thought, however, that the tribunal of arbitrators would be able to have a criterion available when a question of priority was pleaded before it. As regards wireless telegraphy, for example, would not the tribunal be able, in the series of discoveries which had made Marconi's invention possible, to stop at the work of Hertz? Without the work of Hertz, and if Marconi had only known Maxwell's discoveries, could he have made his inventions?

M. LORENTZ thought that although it would always be difficult to reply to this kind of question, it could in effect be said that Marconi could not have found in Maxwell what was necessary for his work.

The CHAIRMAN thought that in these circumstances the tribunal would not have to go further back. It would stop at the author of the one suggestion which had made the invention possible.

M. LORENTZ was nevertheless of opinion that Hertz's work was so closely bound up with that of Maxwell that it would be unjust to separate the two. It was clear, however that there would be no injustice in not going back so far as Newton. However that might be, whatever difficulties the application of the convention encountered, such difficulties would always be preferable to the existing situation.

M. LAFONTAINE observed that the difficulties raised by M. Lorentz, namely that of determining the question of priority, and the danger from the great number of discoveries by dreamers and madmen, were met with equally in the case of patents for inventions. The question of "priorities" was quite as delicate in the case of patents. In the case of the electric lamp, seventy-four "priorities" had been urged against Edison, and the trial had been heard with the assistance of experts. As a result nine-tenths of these "priorities" had been set aside, and Edison had finally gained his case. Questions of priority in the matter of scientific discoveries would be solved in the same way, but priority would not so much follow from the deposit of an "enveloppe Soleau" mentioned in M. Ruffini's report as from the publication of the discovery. The savant would be protected by the publicity of his work.

M. LORENTZ had proposed that questions of this kind should not be taken before a tribunal except by competent authorities. This was a very delicate problem for it would be difficult to define such authorities. In view above all of the fact that the question at issue was of an international nature, it would seem wiser to rely upon the qualifications of the judges and the competence of the experts. However, except in a few rare cases, there would be no trials on the issue of priority before tribunals. There would, in fact, only be a trial if important material interests were at stake.

M. RUFFINI added that, according to his draft, when there was no trial there would be an arbitration. A madman would not find an arbitrator.

M. LORENTZ did not think that this provision in the draft was sufficient. Madmen must be prevented from being able to apply directly to the tribunal. The possibility of a deluge of applications could be foreseen, and a dangerous demoralisation in consequence. The dignity of science must be protected against this danger, and the only means seemed to him to be to put limits to the methods in which questions of priority could be brought before the competent tribunal.

M. DE TORRES QUEVEDO apologised for not having been able to submit the report which the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property had asked him to make on the possibilities of applying M. Ruffini's convention, but M. Ruffini, for reasons outside his control, had only been able to finish his work at the last moment.

To sum up, the question at issue was that of taking away a portion of the profits of inventors in order that savants, the authors of the discovery, and also laboratories, might gain thereby. It would seem desirable to limit what could thus be taken from the inventors, and the best plan would be to fix in some arbitrary fashion a certain percentage, *e.g.*, 30%, which the State would divide between the authors of the discoveries and the laboratories. This would not be a very heavy burden for the inventor and might meet with universal acceptance. It was

important not to discourage inventors, who ran a good many risks and had often to incur considerable expense.

As regards the establishment of priority of discovery, publicity, as M. Lafontaine had said, appeared to be a superior method to that of the "enveloppe Soleau", and in order to ensure this publicity, it would be desirable to set up an official gazette for the publication of inventions and discoveries. Anybody, at the cost of insertion, might publish his ideas in this gazette. The use of the "enveloppe Soleau" would considerably prolong the process. The right of registering an "enveloppe Soleau" at Berne for five years only cost one franc and was renewable.

In reply to a question from M. Lorentz, M. RUFFINI explained that his idea was that litigation between savants on the subject of priority of discovery, and litigation between savants and inventors on the subject of the application of the discovery, would be brought before the same tribunal.

M. DE TORRES QUEVEDO observed that his proposal would suppress litigation between savants and inventors, for the various States would simply raise a certain tax on patents for the profit of savants.

M. RUFFINI added that with a view to allowing this tax to be a source of profit to laboratories and to pure science, it could be conceived that at the moment when the patent became common property the State would, during a certain period, reserve to itself the right to work the invention in the interests of pure science. In this way, it would not be only the savant whose discovery led to an invention who would be protected. M. de Torres Quevedo's proposal recommending a percentage on the profits of working patents of inventions therefore seemed to him very reasonable, but it would take its place in the legislation of individual States rather than in an international convention. Moreover, the Berne Bureaux had thought of a similar plan. It was a question of each State paying a fixed sum in order to compensate its savants. The plans of the Berne Bureau and of M. de Torres Quevedo might be annexed to the draft convention.

The CHAIRMAN proposed that M. Ruffini should be asked to amend his plan in the light of the observations which had been submitted.

The Committee approved this proposal and also approved M. Ruffini's draft.

SIXTH MEETING

held on July, 28th, 1923, at 3.30 p.m.

Present: All the members present at the previous meeting.

M. Godet, Director of the Bibliothèque Nationale Suisse, Dr. Johnston, Director of the American Library in Paris, Dr. Hagberg Wright, Director of the London Library, experts of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, also attended the meeting.

53. PROPOSALS RELATIVE TO ANALYTICAL BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Professor DE HALECKI, after summarising the work of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, pointed out that the question of analytical bibliography had been very fully treated by the Sub-Committee. The proposals of Mme. Curie-Sklodowska, who unfortunately was not able to attend the current session, had served as the basis of discussion.

There had been unanimous agreement on the principles. The resolutions in the definitive form adopted at Brussels had been communicated to the various learned bodies and had received general approval.

Professor de Halecki then read these resolutions:

- (1) With a view to their ultimate centralisation, abstracts should be prepared in each country by national organisations affiliated to international organisations in respect of each group of sciences.
- (2) Every country should provide abstracts of this nature in some widely-spoken language, apart from abstracts in the language of the country concerned.
- (3) All abstracts relating to the same branch of science should be grouped as far as possible in one publication for each country, or each group of countries, it being clearly understood that it would be desirable eventually to establish one single international publication for each branch of science.
- (4) In addition to these publications, the abstracts should be printed, or pasted on cards, so as to render them more easy to centralise, consult or exchange.
- (5) In order to facilitate the work of compiling abstracts it would be desirable to arrive at some international agreement with a view to ensuring that authors of articles, and editors and publishers of periodicals, should publish above the article a short summary (synopsis), and below the article a statement of the conclusions drawn — as is already done in the case of many important periodicals.

(6) An appeal should be addressed to the directors of the leading scientific publications, requesting them to divide their publications into separately sewn sections, in order that the various sections may obtain a wider and more useful circulation.

The Sub-Committee added to the foregoing resolutions the following proposals drafted with the object of giving them effect:

The Sub-Committee is of opinion that, in order to ensure the practical application of these general principles, in accordance with the particular needs of each branch of science, steps should first of all be taken to convene special conferences, at which representatives of the organisations, particularly scientific periodicals, which at present prepare and publish extracts for any such particular branch could reach an agreement concerning a common plan of work. The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would be represented at each of the conferences.

The Sub-Committee proposes to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation that it should immediately take the necessary steps to organise, for example, a meeting of two conferences of this nature, one for physics and physical chemistry and the other for classical philology.

He pointed out that physics had been chosen on the proposal of Mme. Curie-Sklodowska. It had been thought that an early agreement on this question was possible in view of the somewhat restricted number of special publications dealing with this science. The choice of classical philology had been inspired by a memorandum submitted to the Sub-Committee by M. Marouzeau. It had further been decided to add to these two special subjects the social sciences to which the American Sociological Association had drawn attention. The Sub-Committee on Bibliography, therefore, asked the Committee's authorisation to begin to prepare for technical conferences the work on which, by reason of their length, would have to be put in hand as soon as possible.

The CHAIRMAN asked if the members of the Committee had any observations to make on the Sub-Committee's resolutions.

M. LORENTZ stated that he had read the resolutions with interest, and willingly agreed to them. He would only like to ask if the disappearance of the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature, published before the war under the auspices of the Royal Society of London, was definitive.

The CHAIRMAN, M. LAFONTAINE, M. DE REYNOLD and M. GODET gave information on this question. The Catalogue which had been published chiefly by means of large subscriptions (Germany, the United States, etc.), could no longer continue to appear by reason of the suppression of these subsidies. The Catalogue had been drawn up by means of regional bureaux which were, nevertheless, for the most part continuing their activity. Some of them were publishing the results of their researches in individual publications.

M. LORENTZ thought that it would be desirable to mention in the report this interesting attempt which, unfortunately, it had not been possible to continue after the war.

The CHAIRMAN pointed out that since this International Catalogue was not a work of analytical bibliography, it would seem to be better to discuss the question at the moment when the Committee began to consider proposals relative to title-bibliography.

M. LORENTZ stated that he would return to this question later. At the same time he would like to point out that the effect of the publication of this Catalogue had been to create these regional bureaux of which mention had been made. The question at issue here was that of the preparation of analyses. He thought that the bureaux could be used for this purpose, though the International Catalogue no longer existed, on condition that the national organisations were affiliated to an international organisation.

The CHAIRMAN enquired whether the bureaux numbered professional bibliographers among their members, or only specialists.

M. LORENTZ stated that they contained only specialists in pure science. It would, therefore, be necessary to include in the bureaux men learned in the humane sciences. Existing bureaux might constitute the nucleus of these organisations.

It was agreed that the first resolution should be modified in the following form:

“With a view to their ultimate centralisation, abstracts should be prepared in each country by national organisations affiliated *as occasion arises* to international organisations in respect of each group of sciences.”

Professor DE HALECKI pointed out that the Smithsonian Institution which was the American regional bureau for the International Catalogue, had urged the necessity of utilising existing organisations.

Perhaps these regional bureaux (Netherlands Bureau, Smithsonian Institution, etc.), might be summoned to conferences. In this way the services rendered by the International Catalogue, the publication of which had been suspended since the war, might be recognised.

Mlle. BONNEVIE wished to make an observation on the fourth resolution. She pointed out the very interesting printed index cards accompanied by a short abstract prepared by the Wistar Institute of Philadelphia. Perhaps this line of enquiry might be mentioned in paragraph 4 by means of a formula such as: “as has already been done....”, etc.

She also urged the importance of the sixth resolution.

M. LORENTZ, returning to the question previously discussed, thought it would be well to have in each country only a single organisation charged with the duty of preparing the analyses with a view to avoiding questions being approached from different sides.

The CHAIRMAN pointed out that this was implicitly stated in the third resolution ("in one publication"). He thought it might perhaps be expressed more explicitly. In the first resolution the words "by national organisations" might be supplanted by the words "a national organisation".

As regards Mlle. Bonnevie's proposal, perhaps some mention might be made of it in the report rather than in the resolution. He pointed out, moreover, that there was also at Zurich a Concilium Bibliographicum, a system of index cards of the same nature, and that it might be possible to discover other systems equally ingenious.

With these modifications the Sub-Committee's proposals were unanimously adopted.

54. PROPOSALS RELATIVE TO TITLE BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Professor DE HALECKI read the following Resolution of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography:

"(1) That the Brussels International Bibliographical Institute should be chosen as the sole international repository for the alphabetical "Bibliography Titles" arranged according to the names of authors."

"(2) That the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should decide to investigate the manner in which the organisation of this work may be completed under the auspices of the League of Nations, in conjunction with the appropriate national and international associations and institutions."

This Resolution had been completed by a proposal by M. Godet expressing the wish "that all national libraries would be good enough to send to the Institute at least two copies of their catalogues, and the supplements to such catalogues."

M. LORENTZ wished again to take up the question of the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature. As he had previously said, it was desirable that this important work should be mentioned in the introduction to the report.

As a result of a discussion between M. LAFONTAINE, M. LORENTZ, M. PÉRIGORD and M. GODET, it appeared that the International Catalogue dealt only with the pure sciences, whereas the International Institute of Brussels, while utilising the International Catalogue, was drawing up a catalogue of the whole intellectual output of humanity.

M. GODET supported M. LORENTZ' proposal to mention the International Catalogue, and pointed out that if the publication of this catalogue were to be resumed, it would be desirable that it should be worked in collaboration with the Brussels Institute and with the *Concilium Bibliographicum*.

The Committee agreed to urge in its report the advantages to be found in the International Catalogue which used to be published under the auspices of the Royal Society and which had now suspended publication.

The proposals of the Sub-Committee were unanimously adopted.

55. PROPOSALS CONCERNING INTERNATIONAL LIBRARIES.

Professor DE HALECKI read the following resolution of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography:

"Whereas the largest libraries of the world are very incomplete in respect of works published in other countries — a situation which is contrary to the interests of science and the progress of a good understanding between peoples ;

"And considering that it would be highly desirable to constitute at several points throughout the world the largest possible collections of works printed in all countries to be at the disposal of students of all nations ;

"And whereas the creation of one or more new libraries of this kind at the moment presents enormous financial and technical difficulties, and that it is before all essential in this field, as in all others, to make use of existing material and achieve positive results as rapidly and economically as possible ;

"The Sub-Committee proposes to adopt the following resolutions :

"(1) States whose territory contains a centre provided with public or private libraries of exceptional importance shall be asked to organise their libraries if they consider it expedient, or to recommend that they be organised in such a way that all the resources which they contain shall be strictly co-ordinated and rendered easily accessible. This result could be obtained by a methodical division of labour between the libraries in the same town or in the same region by the specialisation of these libraries, by the constitution of a common catalogue and by the creation of special documentation and information services.

"(2) A library of considerable size, general in character and really international, consisting of a single collection or several collections specialising in different fields and connected one with another, would thus be constituted (though still incomplete) in each of these centres ; and the States would be asked to come to an agreement by which the collections of various works in these libraries or unions of libraries constituted in this way would be completed by interchange.

"Agreements would be made which would guarantee to students of all nations free access to these general libraries and every facility for the use of their resources. After such co-ordination, if the libraries are found to contain duplicates, these could be used in the first place for exchanges, and then for loans and, if possible, for the increasing of the international libraries already existing."

He added that the Sub-Committee requested the Committee to furnish it with general directions in two respects.

(1) The Committee might request the Council to authorise it to transmit the resolution in question to the various national libraries.

(2) The international agreement in question might be prepared as a draft, if the Committee thought it desirable, by means of a general documentation of the kind supplied by M. Luchaire as regards France.

The CHAIRMAN pointed out that the question at issue was that of entrusting the Sub-Committee with the duty of continuing the work initiated and of preparing an international agreement.

M. LUCHAIRE thought that the resolution in question should be transmitted rather to States than to national libraries.

M. Hagberg WRIGHT noticed a somewhat serious lacuna in the proposal, which in his view did not sufficiently emphasize the importance of the book and of bibliography, as well in time of peace as in time of war. In his view, stress should be laid upon this great principle which had not been sufficiently emphasized.

The CHAIRMAN agreed that it would be well to urge in the report the importance of the book and of bibliography from the international point of view.

M. LUCHAIRE pointed out that in paragraph 1 of the introductory clauses allusion was made to the question.

He agreed, however, that further stress might be laid upon the point.

M. DE REYNOLD noted M. Hagberg Wright's proposal, and stated that in the general introductory report on the work of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography he would lay stress on the question.

The proposals of the Sub-Committee were unanimously adopted.

56. PROPOSALS CONCERNING THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS.

Professor DE HALECKI, after summarising the replies from the various States to the appeal of the Council of the League of Nations inviting them to adhere to the Conventions of 1886 (Annex 3), read the following resolution of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography :

"The Sub-Committee declares that it attaches great importance to the question of international exchanges, and in order to achieve a practical solution, it decides to begin by obtaining information of as complete a character as possible on the present working of the various offices, and on the improvements which should be made in them.

In order to prepare for congress the collection of this information should be entrusted to Professor de Halecki, to M. Luchaire and to M. Bacha."

He added that the enquiry was continuing with a view to the convocation of an international congress which had been contemplated before the war. From a note recently received from Professor Attolico, Under Secretary-General of the League of Nations, it appeared that the Italian Minister of Public Instruction was disposed to view with favour the convocation at Rome of a congress for the revision of the conventions of 1886. Perhaps, therefore, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would give precise instructions on the point to its Sub-Committee on Bibliography. Was it necessary to wait for a reply to all questionnaires, or was it possible to base action upon the statement of the Italian Government and to arrange for the congress in question, either by means of a meeting of a diplomatic nature, or by a technical conference between the various exchange bureaux ?

M. LUCHAIRE was inclined to be in favour of a technical conference.

M. DE REYNOLD pointed out that, subsequent to the formulation of a proposal by the technical conference, the representatives of the various States could take decisions.

M. LAFONTAINE pointed out that the League of Nations might take the initiative in the convocation of a conference of experts and that the Assembly itself could consider the question and vote the convention, as it had done for the convention on the traffic in women and children. This procedure would be more economical.

M. RUFFINI saw considerable advantage in M. LAFONTAINE's proposal both for the League of Nations and for the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation itself.

The proposals of the Sub-Committee were adopted in this form.

57. PROPOSALS RELATIVE TO INDEX BIBLIOGRAPHICUS.

Professor DE HALECKI read the following resolutions of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography:

"The Sub-Committee being of opinion that the present economic crisis and the increased cost of books have rendered it more than ever necessary for libraries and

men of learning to possess information concerning existing resources and the possibility of mutual assistance,

Recommends that scientific information offices should be established in connection with all national and central libraries on the lines of the offices already in existence, and that such offices should keep in touch, if possible, with the work of preparing collective catalogues for each country.

It would be desirable that the various national organisations should be kept in touch with each other through the intermediary of an international office.

The Sub-Committee adopts M. Godet's proposal for the publication of an Index Bibliographicus which would give a list of the bibliographical institutions and periodicals in existence in all countries and dealing with all branches of knowledge.

The Sub-Committee decides to undertake, without delay, this work which, though not considerable, might prove of great value in view of the number of bibliographical bodies and publications and the present lack of co-ordination between them."

The task of collecting the necessary information is entrusted to M. Godet, M. Leland and Professor de Halecki.

These gentlemen will at the same time collect details regarding the organisation and work of the national offices now in existence. They will examine the conditions under which publication might be carried out and will submit their report at the next meeting of the Sub-Committee."

M. GODET pointed out that the necessary material could be collected towards the end of the year and that the work could appear at the beginning of the next year.

The resolutions of the Sub-Committee were unanimously adopted.

SEVENTH MEETING

held on July 30th, 1923, at 10 a. m.

Present: All the members of the Committee present at the first meeting, together with M. Destrée and Mr. Wigmore.

58. REPORT BY M. RUFFINI ON THE SUBJECT OF INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENT FOR ARCHÆOLOGICAL RESEARCH AND THE PUBLICATION OF THE RESULTS ACHIEVED BY SUCH RESEARCH.

M. Ruffini analysed his report regarding M. Bergson's proposal on the subject of an international understanding for the purpose of :

- (1) Drawing up a list of such archæological treasures as have not yet been brought to light.
- (2) Preparing a general plan of research.
- (3) Determining regulations as to the method of carrying out researches.
- (4) Establishing international regulations concerning the preservation and alienation of archæological monuments (Annex 4).

The conclusions of M. Ruffini's report were as follows :

(1) To invite the International Academic Union to be good enough to draw up a memorandum concerning any information and making any proposals which might be considered appropriate regarding the list of archæological treasures which have not yet been brought to light and as regards a general plan of research.

(2) To condemn the clandestine exportation of objects of art and antiquities. In this respect an international agreement would be most desirable. A model for an understanding of this nature might be furnished by the convention contemplated for the purpose between Italy and Czechoslovakia.

(3) To transmit to the Council of the League of Nations with the request that the Council would communicate them to the Permanent Mandates Commission the resolutions adopted by the Committee of the International Academic Union as regards methods for dealing with antiquities in mandated or assimilated territories.

(4) To establish the point that only when close collaboration between the various countries in archæological work and research has been established, and when the happy effects of such collaboration have made themselves felt in the countries which contain archæological treasures, will such countries decide to grant larger concessions, and with this end in view to express a wish for the realisation of the most complete international solidarity in every domain of culture.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Ruffini for his very striking report. If the conclusions of the report were adopted by the League of Nations, the result would be a very great intellectual solidarity between the various peoples, between the various Committees of the League of Nations and also between the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and the International Academic Union.

On M. DESTRÉE's proposal, *it was agreed* to add in the first line of the report the words

- (1) drawing up so far as possible a list of such archæological treasures, etc.

M. DESTRÉE also proposed to push M. Ruffini's ideas a little further. He asked whether as regards, for example, Italy, a country above all others of antiquities and excavations, the possibility was being considered of completing the law on excavations by regulations affecting foreign research workers. A regulation of this nature might be recommended by the League of Nations as a model regulation.

M. Ruffini's report was adopted.

The Committee agreed to transmit the report to the Council and to invite the Council to communicate to the Permanent Mandates Commission and to the International Academic Union any portions of the report which might concern these bodies.

59. RELATIONS WITH INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC ORGANISATIONS.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that this question had been raised at the first meeting of the Committee. The International Academic Union and the International Research Council had been chiefly taken into consideration. In its session held in April of the current year, the International Academic Union had expressed itself as favourable in principle to collaboration with the Committee. It would, he thought, be desirable to inform these two great international organisations by what method such collaboration should be achieved.

After discussion, the Committee agreed to decide upon this question at its next meeting.

EIGHTH MEETING

held on July 30th, 1923, at 3.30 p.m.

Present : All the members present at the previous meeting, and M. Gallié representing the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers.

60. INTERVIEW WITH M. GALLIÉ, REPRESENTATIVE OF THE CONFEDERATION OF INTELLECTUAL WORKERS.

The CHAIRMAN called upon M. Gallié, representative of the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers, to explain the points on which the International Confederation was working on the lines of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

M. GALLIÉ recalled the fact that the Confederation which he represented had assumed the name of the " Confederation of Intellectual Workers " as the result of a Congress recently held in Paris, attended by the delegates of seven, and later of eight nations (Belgium, Bulgaria, Finland, France, Great Britain, Roumania, Switzerland—Austria being represented after the Conference had begun by the Swiss Delegation). These eight nations had adhered to the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers which, at the moment, contained a million intellectual workers, united for the defence of their intellectual and material interests. Other nations which had not as yet set up any Unions, had sent observers.

The Congress had dispensed with all political discussion in order to keep within the domain of the defence of professional interests.

He pointed to four questions which the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might consider. The first was to find out the countries in which literary and artistic copyright was not so clearly established or protected as in other countries. The second question was that of the protection of University titles, the assumption of which was little, or not at all, protected, *e.g.*, in Italy or in France. It would be desirable to incorporate in the international scheme the methods of protection furnished by British or the various German legislations. Closely connected with this point, although more delicate, was the third question, that of the usage of professional titles (architects, barristers, engineers). The fourth question was that of the moral " rights " of artists over their work. The question at issue was, once the works came into the domain of public knowledge, one of preventing their publishers from abridging them or modifying them at their pleasure.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Gallié for his interesting statements. As regards the fourth question, he emphasised the question of the importance of translation. It would be necessary to find legal means to prevent a publisher from deciding in an arbitrary manner on his translator, and to prevent the purchase of inoperative translation rights for a given country.

In reply to a question from Mr. Wigmore, M. GALLIÉ stated that he had entered into relations with the various American Societies, but that up to the present these Societies had sent no delegates.

61. RELATIONS WITH INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC ORGANISATIONS.

M. DE REYNOLD read a draft resolution which he had prepared as a result of the discussion at the previous meeting.

After a brief discussion between Mlle. BONNEVIE, M. LORENTZ and M. DE REYNOLD, *the following text was unanimously adopted by the Committee :*

" The Committee, in virtue of the mission entrusted to it by the League of Nations, declares once again that it is prepared to associate itself with all serious scientific work. Repeating the terms which it used in its first report, it is following, and

will continue to follow, with close attention and sympathy, the development of international organisations such as the International Research Council, or the International Union of Academies whose activities include, or are capable of including the entire field of science”.

“These relations might, for instance, be established by means of an exchange of information and publications pending other opportunities for collaboration in connection with any specific scientific problem.”

62. PROPOSALS CONCERNING EXCHANGE OF PROFESSORS.

Professor DE HALECKI, after summarising the Report of the Sub-Committee on University Relations, read the following resolutions adopted by the Sub-Committee :

“ The Sub-Committee,

After hearing the report of M. de Reynold and the communication made by M. de Castro ;

Is of opinion that the exchange of professors between universities of different countries would undoubtedly be of benefit to the progress of science and the aims pursued by the League of Nations.

While not underestimating the difficulties which this proposal would involve, and the care which must be shown in putting it into practice, by respecting the customs and regulations of each university and the different conditions under which State examinations are held ;

Feels that it may in this connection make the following recommendations to be carried out as circumstances permit ;

(1) In cases in which the period of such exchanges is not limited to a single lecture or series of lectures, it should be extended so as to cover a complete course.

(2) Professors in highly specialised branches of study and young teachers should not be excluded from this system of exchange.

(3) Except in special circumstances, the professor sent abroad should possess a sufficient knowledge of the language of the place in which he will have to continue his teaching.

(4) Exchanges may be taken to mean, in their strictest interpretation, one university professor going to another university, which in its turn would send one of its professors to take the place of the other professor ;

Or, in a wider sense, a professor of one country going to give a lecture or a series of lectures in another country, which in turn would send one of its professors to a university in the former country ;

Those eventualities would necessarily require different methods, for the first would occur mainly in the case of professors of the same science and the same standing, who would thus be more or less interchangeable and could take each other's place for the whole duration of a course. Each country could draw up a list of such professors and communicate it to the other countries.

(5) It would appear that the organisation of those exchanges must be left, for the present, to agreements between individual countries and individual universities ; it would be gratifying to see these agreements multiply and develop ; the information furnished by the University Bureau might be utilised with a view to attaining this object.

(6) As regards the financial aspect of the problem, the Committee does not think that the moment has yet arrived for proposing an international scheme. States and universities must themselves estimate the financial sacrifices they may be prepared to make, and regulate the allocation of expenses, if occasion arises, in accordance with special agreements.

We may, even at this early stage lay down the following principles, which are in conformity with the dignity and the disinterestedness of science and advanced education, but which, nevertheless, do not lose sight of the economic position of professors, which is often precarious ;

(1) That those exchanges must not be made with a view to profit ;

(2) That the professor exchanged should, in one way or another, be freed from expenditure and compensated for any loss which his change of residence may occasion.

It would be highly desirable for a fund to be set up or a university convention to be concluded, the special object of which would be to meet the financial difficulties which are a bar to the extension of the system of exchanges. It might be possible to obtain the establishment of such a fund by private initiative, if the League of Nations is unable to provide for it.”

M. DE CASTRO wished to make certain observations. He must first of all congratulate his colleagues of the Sub-Committee on the work which they had accomplished, and on the brilliant results which they had obtained. This problem had been interesting him for several years. He had promoted various Conventions with the countries bordering on Brazil, and he had lectured on the question in Argentine and Uruguay. He wished to state that the Conventions on the question were not as yet very numerous, and that the efforts hitherto made lacked

system. It would be desirable, therefore, to multiply courses and to facilitate these exchanges. For this reason he had proposed the creation of a central organisation which would not in any way impose itself upon the universities, but would simply be charged with the task of co-ordinating the efforts made for the purpose of developing the exchanges.

If the contemplated information bureau were created, this bureau would be thoroughly qualified to fulfil this function. He would, therefore, propose an addition indicating that, in the view of the Committee, the bureau, as soon as created, would be able to play an important part in the development of the exchange of professors. It would not be enough to make recommendations to the universities. The primary need was for practical results, and for this financial resources were necessary. He recalled the fact that certain Parliaments had already granted subsidies, *e.g.*, the French and Brazilian Parliaments had voted an annual credit of 200,000 francs. This was an interesting tendency which should be developed.

He pointed out that Dr. Millikan, in indicating the various American endowments which might furnish subsidies, had stated that he would be happy to transmit a request to them as soon as a definitive programme had been organised. It would therefore be important that a central organisation should be available to administer funds obtained and to facilitate the development of such exchanges.

M. LORENTZ pointed out that beside the universities there were other institutions, higher technical schools, etc., which were very important. In his view everything said of universities should apply also to these institutions; the more so because in certain countries, *e.g.*, the United States, the lines of cleavage between the universities and such institutions was not very clear.

M. DESTRÉE stated that it had always been understood that the term "universities" was employed in the widest possible sense, and that this term had only been employed to avoid length and repetition.

The CHAIRMAN agreed with M. Lorentz, that it would perhaps be desirable to specify once for all at the beginning that the word "universities" was used in a very wide sense.

The Committee adopted this proposal.

Mr. WIGMORE wished to explain that the system of exchanges had been organised in a very perfect fashion by the International Institute of Education of New York. This Institute had at its disposal an endowment of more than 25,000 dollars, which was directly applied to it by the Carnegie Trust. It published every year a complete list of exchanges, covering also Asia and South America.

He proposed that the Committee should enter into relations with this Institute in order to secure its valuable collaboration and to introduce into Europe the approved methods of the Institute.

Professor DE HALECKI stated that the Secretariat was already in semi-official relations with the Institute. It would perhaps be desirable to give a more official form to these relations.

M. DE REYNOLD added that M. Reverdin had spoken at length of this Institute in one of his reports. It would be desirable to enter into more continuous relations with the Institute, with a view to obtaining a knowledge of its working, its financial basis, and the results which it had obtained.

M. LORENTZ stated that in his view Resolution 3 was needless, and perhaps even dangerous, if taken literally. In the case of the Netherlands, for example, it was not at all necessary that a foreign professor giving a course there should know Dutch.

Mlle. BONNEVIE was of the same opinion.

After statements by the CHAIRMAN and M. DE REYNOLD, who said that this resolution had been inserted in order to avoid certain inconveniences which had occurred in the past, M. DESTRÉE pointed out that the question was of a certain political importance. It was agreed to replace in paragraph 3 the term "the language understood" by the term "a language understood" and to modify the English text, the sense of which was narrower than that of the French text.

M. DESTRÉE urged the necessity of organising a central motive power which was absolutely indispensable for asking for, or communicating, information. The question of exchanges was closely bound up with the question of the creation of a bureau of University information.

Professor DE HALECKI pointed out that the importance of the question was clearly shown in Article 5. It might be possible, however, in order to be more explicit, to replace the term "utilisation of information from the University Bureau" by the term "utilisation of the University Bureau".

With these two modifications the Committee adopted the resolutions relative to the exchange of professors.

63. PROPOSALS RELATIVE TO THE EXCHANGE OF STUDENTS.

Professor DE HALECKI read the following resolutions proposed by the Sub-Committee on University Relations:

"(1) The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation is of opinion that the exchange of students can be organised and developed very largely by the students themselves, and particularly by the international students' associations. It is of opinion that an agreement among these associations would be desirable; the object of such an agreement would be to co-ordinate their efforts on practical lines, to supply each other

with information and to prevent overlapping, but in giving effect to these recommendations, none of these associations should be forced to modify its plan of work or abandon its special aims. The Committee has chiefly in view the four following associations with which the Universities' Sub-Committee is at present in touch: the International Students' Federation; the Universal Federation of Students' Christian Associations; the Pax Romana and the International Federation of University Women. The Committee accordingly invites the Sub-Committee to make arrangements for a joint meeting between the Committee and the delegates of these four associations; it will draw up beforehand the programme for this meeting in agreement with the associations, and will submit it to the Committee.

"(2) The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation proposes that an agreement should be entered into between the universities of countries economically ruined and universities of countries which are more favourably placed; in accordance with this agreement, the former universities would forward to the latter universities the names of students, who, having regard to their intellectual qualifications, were the most meritorious, and the latter universities would agree to accept those students, and would afford them all requisite facilities, particularly in the form of grants and scholarships, to enable them to attend the latter universities for the purpose of continuing their studies. This agreement might be drawn up conjointly with those national Committees on Intellectual Co-operation which have already been set up, or which may be set up in the future, in various countries, and also with the great international students' associations."

He emphasised the fact that the Sub-Committee was asking the Committee for authorisation to prepare a meeting with the delegates of the four international students' associations. In order to avoid any possible misunderstanding in countries where the universities were State universities, it was decided, after discussion by the Chairman and M. Luchaire, to replace the formula: "The Committee.... proposes that an agreement should be entered into between the universities of countries economically ruined and universities of countries which are more favourably placed", by the following sentence: "The Committee....proposes that the universities of countries economically ruined should be put into touch with those of nations more favourably situated."

With this modification, the Committee adopted the resolutions of the Sub-Committee.

64. PROPOSALS RELATIVE TO THE EQUIVALENCE OF DIPLOMAS AND GRADES.

Professor DE HALECKI read the resolutions of the Sub-Committee on University relations:

"(1) The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation lays down the principle that the object of any system of the equivalent recognition of the diplomas and degrees of different countries and different universities should be to maintain or to raise the level of higher education. Consequently, no system may be established which will be prejudicial to the universities of countries in which education has already reached the highest level.

"(2) The Committee is of opinion that the half-yearly system is the one best adapted to promote inter-university exchanges.

"(3) The Committee decides that an enquiry into the position of the question of the interchangeability of diplomas and degrees at present recognised as between various universities and various countries should be instituted for the purpose of furnishing a basis for the subsequent investigations of the Committee."

The Sub-Committee did not ask for a fresh enquiry, but only for a general indication of the lines upon which it should pursue the enquiry at present being carried on.

Mlle. BONNEVIE stated that she had abstained from voting in the Sub-Committee on the subject of the second resolution. She thought that in certain countries (in Scandinavian countries amongst others) the division of studies would not permit the utilisation of the "half-yearly system" except in cases of advanced studies, and only in certain branches, such as letters and the sciences. She would propose, therefore, to add some such formula as: "as regards advanced studies of special subjects".

Mr. LOWES DICKINSON pointed out that there were difficulties of the same nature in the British universities.

M. DE REYNOLD thought that it was necessary not to confuse the studies themselves with the administrative distribution of time in a university. It was always possible to sub-divide a course so as to make it form a more or less complete whole in a half-year. The system of half-years was more simple; in addition, the resolution in no way imposed it, but merely pointed out its advantages. Moreover, and this was most important for the student, it meant pursuing a practical policy ("séminaires"). Further, many students would be unable to bear the expense of a stay for a whole year abroad, and a quarter-year would be insufficient.

Mr. WIGMORE wished to point out that, according to the experience acquired in America, there would be no real difficulty in the half-year system. There were in the United States about 500 colleges and universities, and the emigration of students from one State to another went on with great frequency. About 125 universities employed the quarter-year system and the others the half-year. These universities had found no difficulty in carrying out the system of equivalencies. Moreover, in some universities there was a special official to deal with such questions.

In reply to Mr. Lowes Dickinson, the CHAIRMAN stated that the system contemplated should apply to graduates as well as to undergraduates, but more particularly to the former. He proposed that the drafting should be made a little more general. In the second resolution, the term "the half-year system is the one best adopted to" should be replaced by the term "the half-year system is of such a nature as to favour".

With this modification in Resolution 2, the Committee adopted the resolution of the Sub-Committee.

65. PROPOSALS RELATING TO A CENTRAL UNIVERSITY INFORMATION BUREAU¹.

Professor DE HALECKI urged the importance of this question, which had been specially considered by the Sub-Committee in accordance with proposals put forward by Professor Bannerjea, Professor Hale and M. de Reynold. It had been emphasised at the first session by Mr. Paton, Professor Gilbert Murray's substitute, that the Bureau should be a simple organisation for co-ordination, and should utilise national bureaux, and even foster the creation of national bureaux in countries where they did not exist. He read the draft regulations drawn up by M. de Reynold (Annex 5).

M. DE CASTRO thought that it was understood that the bureau would be able to extend its scope of action in accordance with circumstances, and that it would develop the system of the exchange of professors.

M. William MARTIN wished to make an observation on the subject of paragraph 3, heading 5. It would be necessary to include in this paragraph a kindred question of great importance, that of the protection of titles.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that M. Gallié had raised this question, and that it would be considered when the Committee drew up the programme of its forthcoming work.

M. LORENTZ had been greatly attracted by the proposal of a Central Bureau, but thought that it would perhaps be prudent, in view of the financial situation of the League of Nations, to obtain information as to the possible reception of the proposal by the Council and the Assembly. He drew attention to the fact that the flow of exchanges was continuing, and that many agreements between various nations had already been made.

M. DE REYNOLD thought the psychological moment to raise the question had arrived. The scheme had had its birth almost at the same time as the League of Nations. It had been reduced to dimensions which, even in the view of many experienced members of the Secretariat, were reasonable from the financial point of view. He urged the moral necessity of submitting this scheme, which was reasonable, which met a very urgent need, and which, in virtue of its precise and concrete form, had a good chance of being adopted.

M. DESTREE also wished to draw the attention of all the members of the Committee to the necessity of devoting all their energy to the realisation of this recommendation. The grandiose projects of last year had been cut short by financial considerations. After so many efforts and the raising of so many hopes, something must be done. No plan was more practical or modest, or more materially necessary than the plan of this bureau, which would ensure communication between the Universities of the different countries. The creation of the bureau, which was necessary in order to give some practical result to the deliberations of the Committee, would also exercise a very favourable influence upon the opinion held of the League of Nations in certain foreign countries.

M. LORENTZ thanked M. Destree for his explanations. He understood the value which the Committee set upon the realisation of the scheme. The only question was to find the best means of carrying it out.

The CHAIRMAN stated that the members were in agreement on the necessity of carrying out certain schemes drawn up in the course of the first year of the Committee's sessions. He also recalled the fact that, during the discussions in the sub-committee, stress had been laid on the importance of grading the proposals submitted in their order of urgency.

Mlle. BONNEVIE stated that the members of the Committee must urge upon the representatives of their respective countries at the forthcoming Assembly, the importance of the establishment of such a bureau.

¹ NOTE BY Mr. BANNERJEA ON THE CREATION OF AN INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITIES BUREAU.

Directly on joining the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in May, 1922, Mr. Bannerjea submitted a written memorandum in which he urged the importance of creating under the auspices of the League:

(1) A systematic exchange of professors, not only between European universities, but also as between highly developed Oriental Universities and Western seats of learning. This proposal was made with the object of maintaining and consolidating cultural affinities not only among European universities, but between East and West, to promote the highest ends of scientific and intellectual work and the cause of peace. As an integral part of Mr. Bannerjea's original proposal was the recommendation that the East in general, and India in particular might benefit by the arrangements concluded and sanctioned by the League of Nations, and that the arrangements might leave ample scope for the East to make her special contributions felt in spheres of European culture by means of a systematic exchange of professors under suitable conditions.

(2) A Central University Information Bureau for receiving, tabulating and co-ordinating news and information of an academic nature, for serving as a clearing-house of information to the various national bureaux, for collecting information about the recent developments of the vital sciences, such as sociology, economics and politics, and for aiding and assisting students, communities in general.

This proposal which was made months before the session of the Plenary Committee in August 1922, was referred by that Committee to the Sub-Committee on University Relations. The Universities Sub-Committee, after considering Mr. Bannerjea's proposal in Paris, the following December, invited him to the meetings in Brussels held in March to develop his thesis. Mr. Bannerjea developed his proposal accordingly in a statement which, in its broad essential features, met with the approval of that Sub-Committee, as also of that convened in July.

M. DESTRÉE recalled the fact that the University Foundation of Brussels had taken an interest in the scheme, and thought it had offered offices which were at its disposal. Would the Committee accept this offer, or would the bureau be established at Geneva? In any case, it should be stated in the scheme that it was for the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to choose the staff and to direct the bureau.

M. DE REYNOLD stated that he personally was not opposed to the seat of the bureau being in Brussels, but he feared that there would probably be objections from the League of Nations, mainly from the financial point of view. He thought that the scheme of making a material connection between the bureau and the Secretariat would probably have more chances of being accepted, if only because of the economies involved.

M. DESTRÉE pointed out that the University Foundation of Brussels intended to establish a University Information Bureau. There would thus be an economy of offices, archives and staff. In any case there had been an offer from the University Foundation, to which a reply would have to be given. The essential point was to make it quite clear that the bureau, if established, would be subordinate to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

M. DE REYNOLD stated that the scheme would be commented upon in the general Report, which would give any explanations which could not be inserted in the actual text.

M. de Reynold's draft scheme was adopted by the Committee.

66. PROPOSALS RELATING TO COURSES OF STUDY ON CONTEMPORARY NATIONS.

Professor DE HALECKI read the resolution unanimously adopted by the Sub-Committee on University Relations :

The University Sub-Committee proposes that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should submit to the Assembly of the League of Nations the following motion :

"In order to diminish the sources of misunderstanding and the lack of sympathy between nations the universities are invited to organise courses on the nations of to-day according to the facilities at their disposal.

It would be the aim of these courses to familiarise students with their existing political, economic, and moral conditions.

The programmes of these courses would be communicated to the International Bureau of University Information whose creation had been recommended by the Committee."

M. DESTRÉE pointed out that, here too, it would be impossible to put the proposed motion into practice except by the creation of the University Information Bureau.

The Committee adopted this resolution.

67. PROPOSALS RELATING TO MUTUAL AID BETWEEN NATIONS IN CONNECTION WITH MODERN LANGUAGES, LITERATURES AND CIVILISATIONS.

Mlle. BONNEVIE, supported by Mr. Bannerjea, proposed that this question should be referred to the Sub-Committee.

A certain number of replies had not yet been received, and she thought it would be preferable to defer a decision on the point.

The CHAIRMAN thought that a conversation between Mlle. Bonnevie and M. Luchaire would make it possible for an agreement to be reached on the general proposals.

M. LUCHAIRE stated that the information at present available was considerable, and that he would be able in a conversation with Mlle. Bonnevie to point out to her the data and the facts upon which the Sub-Committee's proposals had been based.

A decision on this question was deferred.

68. PROPOSALS RELATING TO INTERNATIONAL VACATION COURSES.

Professor DE HALECKI read the proposals of the Sub-Committee on University relations :

(1) The courses should be international, not only as regards students, but also as regards the teaching staff and the programme of lectures.

(2) Adequate notice of the programme of each course, and also of the names of professors should be given to the League of Nations or its Committee.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would then be in a position to give practical proof of the interest which it took in the development of these courses by requesting the Council :

(1) To invite the attention of Governments and University authorities to the importance of encouraging these undertakings, and to offer the services of the Secretariat for the purpose of supplying any information required, and of carrying on publicity work on behalf of these courses ;

(2) To authorise the Committee to receive grants for the benefit of these international courses from any institution which might be interested in the scheme ;

(3) To encourage Governments and University authorities to make grants to students desirous of attending international courses.

M. DE REYNOLD thought that these vacation courses should be chiefly for pedagogic purposes. Did not the draft submitted perhaps encourage an oratorical and demonstrative development in the Vacation Courses, perhaps to the detriment of the pedagogic side? He was raising no objection to the draft, but merely expressing a scruple.

Mlle. BONNEVIE recalled the instances which she had furnished to the Sub-Committee. She pointed to the courses which had recently taken place at Christiania, which had included geology. In her view, there should be included in such courses questions concerned not only with letters and the arts, but also with the sciences. The Course to which she was referring comprised both national and international elements. She thought the proposed system really efficient.

The CHAIRMAN thought that Mlle. Bonnevie's observations should be included in the general Report.

M. DE REYNOLD noted this point and stated that the general Report would take account of the observations put forward.

M. LORENTZ, on the subject of paragraph 2, was of opinion that if the Information Bureau were created, it would be for the Bureau to communicate the programme of the Courses and the names of the Professors.

Under reservation of the addition of this detail, the proposals were adopted.

69. PROPOSALS RELATING TO THE COMPILATION OF HISTORY TEXT BOOKS.

Professor DE HALECKI recalled the fact that Dr. Millikan had made suggestions on the question, and that M. Luchaire had drawn up a more detailed scheme.

M. PERIGORD thought he should emphasise, on behalf of Dr. Millikan, the importance of the question, and expressed the hope that it would come up for discussion at a session of the Committee in the near future.

The Committee, in adopting the proposals of the Sub-Committee, referred the question to the Sub-Committee for further consideration.

70. PROPOSALS RELATING TO THE CREATION OF AN INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY.

Mr. BANNERJEA wished to emphasise, from a wholly impersonal point of view, the fact that M. Destrée had in 1922 put forward a proposal for the creation of an international University, and that his own scheme (Annex 6) had been submitted to the Committee a few months back, before the Government of a State Member of the League of Nations had formulated a scheme of the same kind.

After discussion between the Chairman, M. Bannerjea, M. Destrée, M. Lorentz and Mr. Lowes Dickinson, *it was agreed* that the Committee should follow the precedent observed in the question of International Languages, for the reason that this important question might be given the careful consideration which it deserved.

The Committee expressed its intention of considering in the same single session the scheme submitted by Professor Bannerjea, and the proposal which would probably be made on the same question by a Government Member of the League of Nations.

NINTH MEETING

held on July 31st, 1923, at 10 a.m.

Present: All the members present at the previous Meeting except M. Ruffini, who regretted his inability to attend.

71. RESOLUTION ON MUTUAL INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE FOR THE STUDY OF MODERN LANGUAGES, LITERATURES AND CIVILISATIONS.

M. LUCHAIRE read the following text, drawn up in full agreement with Mlle. Bonnevie, immediately after the discussion at the previous Meeting.

“In view of the importance, as regards the aims pursued by the League of Nations, and especially the establishment of closer relations between European and Oriental peoples, of extending the study of modern languages, the Committee, while not desiring in any way to prejudice the study of ancient languages and civilisations,

“Requests the League of Nations to draw the attention of the States Members of the League to the advisability of developing as fully as possible the teaching of modern languages, literatures and civilisations.”

This Resolution was adopted.

72. DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE SUBJECT OF THE OFFER OF THE MUNICIPALITY OF CAPRI.

M. DESTRÉE recalled the fact that he had communicated to the Sub-Committee on University relations in Paris an offer from the Municipality of Capri, which was prepared to put

at the disposal of artists a portion of the old Chartreuse, of which another portion was to be transformed into a museum. Artists from all countries could lodge there at reduced prices. This offer was of great interest, because it was the embryo of something more considerable. It might be possible to constitute in the various countries a kind of network of international hostels for artists.

The Committee adopted the draft Resolution proposed by M. Destrée.

“The International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, specially draws the attention of the Council and of the Assembly to the striking suggestion of the Municipality of Capri, and requests to be authorised to get into touch with the said municipality and with the Italian Government for the purpose of finding out conditions under which the Chartreuse of Capri could be put at the disposal of artists from the various countries.

The Committee considers it extremely desirable, with a view to the development from the point of view of international solidarity, to establish in picturesque localities centres of teaching and work for artists similar to that proposed by the Municipality of Capri.”

73. QUESTIONS RELATING TO THE TEACHING OF ESPERANTO AND THE PROBLEM OF AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that at its meeting on September 21st, 1922, the Third Assembly had adopted the following Resolution by 26 votes to 2.

“The questions relating to the teaching of Esperanto shall be referred to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in order that that Committee may give its opinion on the various aspects of the problem of an auxiliary international language.”

M. DE TORRES QUEVEDO submitted the following draft Resolution :

“The Committee, being convinced of the utility of an artificial auxiliary language in promoting scientific relations between the various peoples, appoints a sub-Committee to examine, with the assistance of experts, the different solutions which have been proposed.”

In his view the question was too important not to receive careful study. He thought that an auxiliary language could only be an artificial language in view of the fact that national susceptibilities would be awakened if a proposal were made to choose a living language. On the other hand, an artificial language founded on rules previously drawn up, could be made very easy. The report of the Secretariat to the Third Assembly on Esperanto as an international language showed clearly the services to be expected from an auxiliary artificial language.

M. DE REYNOLD stated that he had considered the problem of the auxiliary language with the assistance of all possible relevant data. He had consulted Esperantists, Idists and many linguists. He had considered first the problem whether an auxiliary language was necessary. In 1815 there had been twelve official languages in Europe ; the number had now doubled, and the resuscitation of nationality had caused a further linguistic subdivision. At the same time the difficulties arising out of this sub-division were more apparent than real, for there were predominating languages by means of which people made themselves understood.

An auxiliary language might be useful for commercial purposes and for the tourist, but this question was of no interest to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

The Committee should at least demand of the auxiliary language that in the present state of disorder in Europe a language based on a systematised form should not come in to make confusion worse confounded, and to lower the level of the higher culture.

Three solutions were possible. An auxiliary language could be a living language, an artificial language, or a dead language, *i.e.*, Latin.

At first sight the use of an auxiliary living language would seem the most natural, and it could be seen that, in fact, there were two auxiliary international languages, English and French, the first being chiefly the economic auxiliary language, and the second the auxiliary language of intellectual and diplomatic life. But, as M. de Torres Quevedo had said, the choice of a living language, as an auxiliary would arouse national susceptibilities.

As regards the artificial auxiliary language which Descartes and Leibnitz had conceived, this was a Cartesian conception, founded on reason and expressing also a somewhat mystical requirement for world unification.

Zamenhof had achieved an artificial language by drawing it from living languages. Esperanto had been a success, although it was not proper to attribute to the report of the Secretariat, quoted by M. de Torres Quevedo, all the importance which the latter had attributed to it. The report was based upon debatable facts, and its conclusions were not altogether impartial.

Esperanto was difficult to write, being based on the phonetic system. It had a complicated alphabet (consonants accentuated in the Slav fashion), a vocabulary founded on the principle of the internationalisation of root forms, which principle resulted in an empiricism which sometimes gave ridiculous results. The roots were deformed, the words compounded were strange, and above all, the inaccuracy and poverty of the vocabulary was a source of confusion. This was the great fault of Esperanto, which its reformers, the Idists, wished to correct. Esperanto was unemployable from a scientific point of view.

It had been said that its pedagogic value was beyond all question. True, it was beyond doubt that children might like exchanging postcards in Esperanto with other children in all countries, and that they might find pleasure in the handling of this simplified language.

The Idists had reformed Esperanto with a view to making it more exact, but they had at the same time complicated it, particularly as regards the affixes. It was curious to note that the Idists had, in fact, Latinised Esperanto, and that after Ido came Romanal, which was to an even greater extent inspired by Latin.

An artificial language might be propagated with success, but it was then exposed to the danger which threatened all living languages, *i.e.*, that of evolving into different language groups. The Esperantists were thoroughly alive to this danger in refusing to accept any modification whatsoever in Esperanto.

There remained Latin. It was interesting to note that American philologists had forwarded to the League of Nations a petition in favour of Latin, and further that in several countries in Europe a movement for the renaissance of Latin could be observed. True, in the course of the nineteenth century the plea for the adoption of Latin as a scientific auxiliary language had fallen through, but this had been because the partisans of Latin had held too closely to classical Latin. Latin could only become an auxiliary international language on condition that it did not go back to the language of Cicero, but rather to that of the savants of the Middle Ages, or to Erasmus. He therefore proposed the following Resolution :

“(1) Inasmuch as the League of Nations is the central organ and regulator of international relations, it is competent to consider the linguistic aspect of these relations but it is not competent to express an opinion in favour of any particular natural or artificial language ;

“(2) Consequently it is not in a position to express approval of Esperanto, Ido or any other kind of artificial language, and must confine itself to watching their progress and noting the results ;

“(3) All that it can do is to emphasise the utility and advantages of a second language in international relations, in view of the multiplicity of national languages, and the consequent disadvantages caused to relations of all kinds between the various nations ;

“(4) The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation wishes to lay down the following general principles relative to the choice of any auxiliary language :

“(a) The language should be so constituted as not to be likely to increase confusion of mind, inaccuracy of conception, and uncertainty as to the meaning of the words used to express ideas ;

“(b) It should, on the other hand, contribute towards spreading high culture and raising the general educational level ;

“(c) It ought not in any way to interfere with the study of modern languages, or with that of the classics, forms of study, both of which constitute, in the opinion of the Committee, the surest means of maintaining in each country the intellectual “ élite ” and of promoting mutual comprehension between the various nations ;

“(d) Any language which is intended to serve in promoting intellectual life must be capable of translating and expressing the shades of meaning and complexities of contemporary thought and science.

“(5) The Committee feels justified in submitting to the League of Nations at once an international agreement for the unification of the various code systems.

“(6) It invites scientific associations to continue, each in its own sphere, the work of completing and unifying their terminologies.

“(7) It invites the Secretariat, subject to approval of the recommendation by the competent authorities, to complete its enquiry into Esperanto by similar enquiries with regard to Ido, Romanal, and the other artificial language systems ; with regard to the teaching of modern languages, particularly French and English ; and with regard to the teaching of Latin.

“(8) As regards this classical language, it would be glad if a Committee of specialists were set up in order to consider, with a view to completing the examination of the various aspects of an auxiliary language, whether it would still be possible to use Latin as an auxiliary language, the progress achieved in the knowledge of Latin in the last twenty-five years being taken into account.”

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. de Reynold for the very considerable work which he had accomplished for the Committee.

M. DE TORRES QUEVEDO also thanked M. de Reynold for his extraordinarily ample report, but he maintained his opinion that the question of the auxiliary language was of such importance that it deserved to be most thoroughly considered by a sub-Committee with the assistance of experts. It was clear that this sub-Committee would have also to consider the report prepared by M. de Reynold.

It was possible that there was at the moment no artificial language capable of serving at once for intellectual communications, but an artificial language might be brought to perfection. The Esperanto and Idist academies would have to work on this: The report prepared by the Secretariat for the Third Assembly was a report worthy of serious consideration and drawn up with the assistance of replies from men of science and learned societies.

The criticisms levied at Esperanto, as Zamenhof had left it, might be well founded, but the same criticisms might be made of natural languages. In all languages there were ambiguities — words which lent themselves to ridicule.

It would be desirable to have more than one opinion, and in particular the opinions of sociologists and linguists.

M. DE REYNOLD explained that he had not criticised the faults of the report on Esperanto prepared by the Secretariat, but had only contested its impartiality. He recalled the fact, moreover, that the Third Committee of the Assembly had been obliged to suppress its conclusions.

Whatever illogicalities there might be in living languages, it would seem that it was for an artificial language to avoid them, and it was certain that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should demand that an auxiliary language should be up to the level of the task which it would have to fulfil.

M. LUCHAIRE had not been greatly struck by the ridiculous or illogical side of Esperanto, and freely admitted that an artificial language might well be of use, without expressing so many shades of meaning as a living language. The objections bearing on the lack of lucidity were somewhat serious. If, in speaking an artificial language all fine shades of meaning had to be abandoned, and all the moral content offered by a living language, it was necessary in exchange to have the advantage of absolute lucidity. It would appear that this was not so as regards existing artificial languages. On the contrary, their partisans quarrelled with such bitterness that it might be wondered whether it was worth the Committee's while to take part in this affray.

From the practical point of view, an artificial language was useful if it allowed people from different countries to communicate one with another. Actually, it was becoming increasingly necessary to savants, and in general to intellectuals, to know one or two foreign languages. Esperanto did not do away with this necessity among intellectuals, therefore, it did not appear that any great use would be made of the artificial language.

As regards economic interests, the case was otherwise, but such interests should not be the business of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, but rather of an organisation representing economic interests.

The danger of an artificial international language would be in the belief that through it the necessity for learning living languages could be dispensed with. In this case, instead of assisting the promotion of goodwill, the artificial international language would alienate it. There were two or three great languages used for international communications. These languages were tending to spread, and to win recognition throughout the world as auxiliary languages. Esperanto was in competition with these languages, and just as the Committee could not throw the weight of its authority upon the side of English, French or Spanish, it could not, he thought, pronounce in favour of Esperanto without alienating many people and running the risk of appearing unfair and partial.

Among the arguments put forward in favour of Esperanto there were, however, two which deserved to be retained. Although intellectuals could and should learn foreign languages, it would seem desirable that an easier auxiliary language should be put at the disposal of non-intellectuals. This argument was probably more apparent than real, since the masses in the various countries got into touch with one another chiefly through their leaders, and the knowledge of other peoples was facilitated by various means, translation for example. It would seem that the persons likely to be the most interested in the problem of an auxiliary international language should be emigrants. Experience, however, showed that emigrants did not rely upon an artificial language like Esperanto in order to enter into relations with the countries to which they migrated. Rather they tried to learn the language of the countries in question, because it was of greater assistance to them than an artificial language. There was a further most important consideration. It would not do to think only of European peoples or peoples of European origin. The East must not be forgotten, and the necessity of intellectual communication between the East and the West. This was why Orientals were interested in the problem of the international language. Was it not, however, true that if the intellectuals of the East wished to know western circles, it would be more useful for them to learn one or two important European languages than any artificial language whatever? This seemed certain, since it was only by means of a living language that contact was really established with a foreign people. In any case, on this point, as in all the others, the Committee should, he thought, take pains in its resolutions to give satisfaction to Oriental intellectuals.

M. DESTRÉE observed that the question was complicated because of the complexity of the duties to be discharged by an artificial language. Personally, if he were a delegate to the Assembly of the League of Nations, he would vote in favour of Esperanto; but in the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation he would not so vote. He recalled the fact that the majority of men employed a vocabulary of about 600 words on an average, whereas intellectuals employ from 6,000 to 8,000 words. For those who only needed 600 words Esperanto was useful and nobody could maintain that it was a matter of indifference whether or no non-intellectuals were able to communicate easily one with another. The prisoners in the east of Europe had been able during the war to communicate with foreign doctors and hospital orderlies by means of Esperanto. For intellectuals it would be simpler to study living languages.

Mlle. BONNEVIE drew attention to the fact that the question of the artificial language had been referred to the Committee by the Assembly, as the result of a vote in which out of about 50 States, 26 voted for, and 2 against. This vote would seem to show that many States did not attach any importance to the question. On the other hand, an analysis of the 26 votes showed that they comprised, side by side with States which were partisans of Esperanto, States which were opposed to it, as they were opposed to any other international language, or States which would prefer another international language, such as Ido.

It has been said that Esperanto would be of great importance to the smaller nations. This was not exact. The Norwegians, for example, preferred to learn living languages which opened to them the path to foreign culture. Esperanto could not dispense them from the necessity

of learning these living languages. A study of it would be, therefore, a supplementary work of no great utility. On the other hand, Esperanto might perhaps be useful for commerce and for telegraphic codes, but this question did not concern the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. She, personally, accepted No. 7 of M. de Reynold's proposals, but as regards proposal No. 8 relative to Latin, she could not agree.

Dr. NITOBÉ wished to take all the responsibility for the report of the Secretariat to the Third Assembly. He recalled the fact that the Second Assembly had left to the Secretariat the duty of studying the question of the teaching of Esperanto in schools. Many Esperanto Associations had replied to the enquiry initiated in the subject, and they had replied in Esperanto. It had been necessary to engage an Esperanto expert to prepare the report based on these replies. The report had perhaps retained some touch of the fervour and optimism of the Secretariat's correspondents: but he could see no reason to doubt their sincerity and objectivity.

Further discussion was adjourned to the next Meeting.

TENTH MEETING

Held on July 31st, 1923, at 3.30 p.m.

Present: All the Members present at the previous Meeting.

74. CONTINUATION OF DISCUSSION ON THE PROBLEM OF AN AUXILIARY INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE.

Mr. WIGMORE said that M. de Reynold's statement had made a strong impression upon him, especially as regards the advantages of utilising Latin as a world language from the intellectual and scientific point of view. He recalled the fact that up to the beginning of the 18th century the discussions of savants had taken place in Latin, and that even to-day the advanced studies of the Catholic University at Rome were conducted in that language. An elementary knowledge of Latin was required of a great number of students in the United States. These three reasons constituted, in his view, a very striking argument in favour of an enquiry into the possibility of utilising Latin as a universal language from the scientific and intellectual point of view.

Mr. LOWES DICKINSON pointed out, in the first place, that in choosing between the resolution put forward by M. de Torrès Quevedo and that of M. de Reynold, the Committee would be deciding whether it would continue to consider the question of an artificial language. He thought that the discussion at the previous meeting was not enough to decide the question, the more so because all the members of the Committee had not made a special study of artificial languages. In his view the idea of an auxiliary language was a good one; moreover, the utility of such a language was disputed by none. He instanced the inconveniences experienced in the League of Nations by the employment of two official languages. If, later, other official languages were to be added to French and English the difficulties would be yet greater. There could be no doubt about the advantages accruing from a common language.

Could Latin be utilised as a common language? He rather doubted it. Even among professors of Latin, only a small number would be found capable of maintaining a conversation or writing in Latin. And this was even truer in the case of savants, who, at an early stage, took up a special branch of study. In these circumstances, the only resource would be an artificial language. He thought, therefore, that it would be desirable to continue the enquiry initiated on the subject of the study and teaching of artificial languages as was proposed in the resolution of M. de Torrès Quevedo.

M. LORENTZ had listened with great interest to M. de Reynold's statement, which was the result of a profound study of the question. He agreed with M. de Reynold in thinking that a new language could not be created, and even that a living language could not be simplified. At the same time, he thought that there might be a certain advantage, even from the scientific point of view, in an artificial language, as regards physics, for example. In this connection he recalled the difficulties which had arisen in the meetings of the Physics Council at Brussels.

He agreed, therefore, in principle with M. de Reynold, but thought that M. de Reynold's resolution might perhaps be softened. It might be stated, for example in paragraph D, that a language of this nature might be useful in everyday life, and to a certain limited extent in certain sciences.

He thought with M. de Torrès Quevedo that it would be desirable to continue to consider the question without taking any immediate decision. He had no great faith in a simplified Latin, but he wished to urge the importance of the study of living languages, since such study was one of the most efficient means of bringing nations together.

M. PÉRIGORD said that he had studied this problem of language in the United States. As regards Latin, Mr. Lowes Dickinson's criticisms were most valuable, and from his own experience he doubted the possibility of adopting Latin as a universal language. He thought that he expressed the general opinion in the United States in saying that, in view of the inconveniences of an artificial language, it would be desirable to favour the development of the study of the two languages (French and English) which were at the moment tending to become universal means of expression.

Mlle. BONNEVIE had certain observations to make on the text of M. de Reynold's resolutions. She thought that the text should be modified, since the Committee had not considered all existing artificial languages. On the other hand, she would not vote for a resolution calling for a special enquiry on Esperanto. She would suggest that it should be specifically stated that the enquiry being carried on into the teaching of living languages should also be extended to cover the teaching of Esperanto.

M. DE TORRÈS QUEVEDO pointed out that, according to the Secretariat's report, Esperanto could be learned eight or ten times more rapidly than a living language, and that a study of it appeared even to facilitate the learning of other languages. It could, therefore, be taught without overburdening the intelligence of children. Further, Esperanto could be developed and perfected still more, while still keeping its unity. A specially constituted academy could see to this. If, as M. Lorentz stated, it was of some utility from the point of view of relations between physicists, it was already meeting an important need. Moreover, Esperanto would be useful to savants travelling abroad. An artificial language would be useful to all, to educated men as well as to the mass of the population, and it was desirable to facilitate the development of it.

M. DE REYNOLD thought that on this question there were certain misunderstandings which it would be well to clear up. The first misunderstanding was on the question of Latin. If all the aspects of an auxiliary language were to be considered, it was inevitable that the possibilities of Latin should be explored. Such, moreover, had been the view put forward by the American Philological Association. His resolution did not recommend the use of Latin, but merely proposed that its possibilities should be investigated.

The second misunderstanding consisted in saying that all systems of artificial languages must be examined. Most artificial languages had long been obsolete, and there were only two groups to consider, *viz.*, the Esperanto group (of which Ido was merely a kind of heresy) and the group approximating to Latin.

The third misunderstanding consisted in saying that the Committee was making an *a priori* judgment because it had not practically studied such artificial languages. In matters of this kind, the expert, that is to say, the linguist, must be trusted. Now, linguists had been able to lay down a certain number of linguistic laws verified by facts, and these laws would seem to show that an artificial language could not be developed beyond a certain limit.

Taking account of these three points, the Committee might come to definitive conclusions without the necessity of instructing a Sub-Committee to make an enquiry, which would only result in conclusions which had already been expressed.

M. LORENTZ maintained his view that beside the principles established by linguists there was a question of practical utilisation which could not be passed over.

The CHAIRMAN thought that the moment had come to close the discussion. There was before the Committee the proposal of M. de Torrès Quevedo for the appointment of a Sub-Committee to consider the various solutions proposed, and M. de Reynold's proposal ruling out the idea of an artificial auxiliary language. There was a third more radical proposal, namely, to say that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation considered that it was not for the League of Nations to recommend an artificial language, whatever that language might be.

In his view, a further adjournment was neither necessary nor desirable. The idea of the Assembly had been not so much to ask the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for a philological opinion as for its opinion on the question whether the adoption of an auxiliary language would assist the League of Nations in the accomplishment of its work. There was no doubt that the adoption of an artificial language such as Esperanto might render great services, but, there would also be disadvantages. In order to know whether the advantages would counterbalance the disadvantages, free play must be left for the intellectual and moral forces which might operate on one side or another. Such a play of forces was almost the only method at the disposal of humanity for the purpose of finding out whether a great innovation, the reactions of which might be indefinite, was or was not desirable. The innovation would only be desirable if in the long run it imposed itself.

It was therefore for each of any groups which might be constituted for the achievement of any progressive innovation to consider the question whether, for the particular end which it had in view, it ought to recommend the adoption of an artificial language. Each of these groups constituted one of the forces which should have free play.

Put in this way the question became very simple. The object of the League of Nations was to bring nations together, and here there was no question of that purely mechanical rapprochement which consisted in facilitating communications. The facilities in this direction offered by an artificial language would not, any more than the telegraph or the railway, influence spiritual rapprochement. In order to triumph over the prejudice which stood in the way of understanding and loving another nation two means only were available: either to go into the country in question and for some time live the life of its inhabitants, or else, from afar off, to learn its language and to study its literature.

If necessary, it would be enough to learn the language, for the language was imbued with the spirit of the people who spoke it. When in this way, something of the spirit of another people had been acquired, sympathy for such people was an inevitable result, and such sympathy could not but be preserved, even when circumstances might create a clash of interest. Now, this method of rapprochement, the most potent perhaps of all, would have to be renounced the moment that an artificial language was universally adopted, since the whole object of the artificial language was to make superfluous in practice the study of living languages. If the language of another people was only to serve us for the purpose of

understanding the literature of that people, how many would continue to learn it? From henceforth the business of the League of Nations and of its Committee on Intellectual Co-operation was to encourage the study of living languages, and not that of an artificial language. This was not to say, he would repeat, that the artificial language might not end by imposing itself, but it was for others, not for the League of Nations, to take up its cause.

M. DE CASTRO stated that, in his view, the point was well taken. It was not a question of discussing the advantages or disadvantages of artificial languages. An artificial language could not effect that reconciliation in feeling and in intellect between nations, which was the only durable reconciliation.

A discussion followed, in which the CHAIRMAN, Mlle. BONNEVIE, M. LORENTZ and M. DE REYNOLD took part, on the provisional text of a recommendation proposed by M. Destrée. As the result of this discussion, the Committee was of opinion that it would be desirable to vote on the question of principle, viz., whether the Committee thought that it should recommend an artificial language.

The Committee decided by 6 votes to 1, with 3 abstentions, that it ought not to recommend an artificial language.

A Drafting Committee, consisting M. Destrée, M. Lorentz, M. de Reynold and M. Luchaire, was entrusted with the final drafting of the resolution, in accordance with the vote on the question of principle.

In reply to a question from Mr. Wigmore, the CHAIRMAN stated that the question of the enquiry would not appear in the resolution, but would be the subject of a subsequent discussion.

75. RELATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE WITH THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON MORAL EDUCATION.

Professor DE HALECKI summarised the memorandum of the Secretariat (Annex 7). He pointed out that the question at issue was the exchange of documents. It would perhaps be desirable for the Committee to indicate to its secretary the documents which it wished to communicate to the bureau of the Congress.

M. DE REYNOLD thought that, in view of its terms of reference, and for reasons of prudence, the Committee should take no action in this matter, since it was not its business to consider moral education. At the same time it was possible for publications to be exchanged with the Congress without an official decision of the Committee being necessary.

Mlle. BONNEVIE recalled the discussions of the Assembly of 1921 on the subject of the meaning to be given to the word "education".

As a result of a discussion on the meaning of the word "education", and of information furnished by M. REVERDIN and M. DE REYNOLD on the programme of the Moral Education Congress, and after consideration of the Minutes of the Second Assembly, the Committee noted that it was not its business to deal with questions of moral education. As regards the exchange of publications, there was no necessity for a decision of the Committee.

76. PROPOSAL RELATIVE TO INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC CONGRESSES.

Professor DE HALECKI summarised the memorandum of the Secretariat (Annex 8) relative to a proposal by M. Munch on the preservation of a fully international character of scientific congresses.

M. DESTRÉE and M. DE REYNOLD thought that the Committee should refrain from laying down any general rules of a moral character for any congress.

Mr. WIGMORE was opposed to M. Munch's proposal for the reasons pointed out by M. Destrée and M. de Reynold, and also for reasons of his own.

M. PÉRIGORD expressed the same views as Mr. WIGMORE, on behalf of Professor Hale.

M. LORENTZ thought that the Committee should not give advice, but might perhaps be able to express a hope on the lines of M. Munch's proposal.

The CHAIRMAN replied that, while certain persons thought that the time was not ripe for all the savants of the world to meet together, they held this opinion for reasons for which they were responsible to their conscience alone. It was not for the Committee to weigh these reasons or to indicate, even in an indirect form, any disapproval of their action. A wish expressed by the Committee could have no practical effect since clearly it would not modify anyone's convictions. It would necessarily be interpreted as a judgment upon a certain attitude, as a mere expression of opinion. The Committee could not take such a course.

Mlle. BONNEVIE, who had attended the discussions in the Assembly, did not think that the Assembly was waiting for a reply on this point. The Assembly had referred its recommendation to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in order that that Committee might take note of it.

The Committee decided : (1) to accept this interpretation, and therefore to close the discussion ; (2) to consider the Assembly's Recommendation as having been referred to it merely for information, and to confine itself to acknowledging the receipt of it.

ELEVENTH MEETING

held on August 1st, 1923, at 10 a.m.

Present: All the members present at the previous meeting, with the exception of M. Ruffini and M. de Torres Quevedo, who regretted their inability to be present.

77. RESOLUTION OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE PROBLEM OF AN AUXILIARY INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE.

A draft resolution summarising the discussion at the previous meeting was proposed by M. DE REYNOLD. On a question from the CHAIRMAN, Dr. NITOBÉ remarked that as an observer of and not a participator in the Esperanto movement, he strongly believed that this artificial language would make great progress in the near future. Whatever its merits or demerits, it was spreading rapidly and any adverse resolution passed by the Committee might have an effect similar to a religious persecution. He understood that a law passed in a certain country forbidding the teaching of Esperanto in schools had increased the number of people studying it. What he feared most for the Committee was that twenty years hence, when the Esperantists had increased greatly in number, they might hold up any adverse and unfavourable resolution of this Committee as a sign of its lack of vision.

In order to meet this criticism, M. DE REYNOLD agreed to change the second sentence of the draft resolution, *which was adopted in the following form by 8 votes to one, in the absence of Mme. Curie-Skłodowska, M. Ruffini and M. de Torres Quevedo* :

“ The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, having examined the various aspects of the problem of an auxiliary international language, does not feel justified in recommending an artificial language to the consideration of the Assembly of the League of Nations.

“ It does not dispute the practical advantages which would result from the universal adoption of an artificial language. It considers, however, that its efforts should be mainly directed towards promoting the study of modern languages and of foreign literatures, in view of the fact that such study constitutes one of the most effective methods of bringing about a moral and intellectual understanding between men of different nationalities, an understanding which is, indeed, the ideal of the League of Nations. ”

78. REPORT FROM THE COMMITTEE ON PUBLICATIONS.

M. DE REYNOLD, on behalf of the Committee on Publications, read the decisions of the Committee. It was proposed to publish the reports of the enquirers into the conditions of intellectual life, the preliminary reports of Professor Halecki and M. Ruffini's report on scientific property. These publications would bear the general title of “ Publications of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation ”. They would appear in two series, first the series of enquiries into the conditions of intellectual life, itself subdivided into : (a) general questions, (b) intellectual life in the various countries ; and a second series, including M. Ruffini's report, called “ Proposals and Memoranda ”. The *Index Bibliographicus* would appear outside the series.

On the first blank page of each volume would appear the following note prepared by M. Luchaire :

“ The sole object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing these reports is to draw attention to the questions of organisation and intellectual co-operation which arise in relation to each of the subjects dealt with. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively but merely to draw the reader's attention to them and to provide an opening for fresh suggestions. ”

The Committee had been unanimous in requesting that M. Bergson should be asked to write the general introduction to the publications of the Committee, which would appear in the first volume of the enquiry (general questions). The first volume would also contain a summary drawn up by the various enquirers by means of the minutes of the meeting dealing with the enquiry.

As regards the report on musicians drawn up by M. William Martin, it was proposed that it should be published without annexes at the expense of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

The question of a periodical publication was deferred.

M. WILLIAM MARTIN requested, as regards the publication of his report, that the matter should be first submitted to the Director of the International Labour Office.

The general scheme proposed by the Committee on Publications was adopted, with this reservation.

Mlle. BONNEVIE requested that the publications of the Committee should be distributed gratis to Universities and Scientific Institutes.

This was agreed.

On the proposal of the CHAIRMAN, *it was also decided that the provisional Committee on Publications should become a permanent Sub-Committee.*

M. DE REYNOLD and M. LUCHAIRE were specially requested to preserve the continuity of the Committee by maintaining correspondence with the other members.

79. ORGANISATION OF RELIEF FOR INTELLECTUALS AMONG THE RUSSIAN EMIGRANTS.

M. DE REYNOLD, on behalf of the small Committee specially appointed to consider this question, proposed the following resolution :

“(1) The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will establish relations with the Office of the Russian Academic Union at Prague and will invite it to set up or to become a ‘Committee of Intellectual Co-operation of Russian Emigrants’ similar to those which have already been formed in Austria, Hungary, Poland, etc., and in fact in all the countries of Eastern Europe. The intellectuals among the Russian emigrants will thus enjoy the advantages which the co-operative system will undoubtedly offer as soon as it is universally organised.

“(2) The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will appoint as its correspondent or expert a Russian scientist, to be selected from those whose qualifications are highest and whose material position is specially precarious.

“(3) It will ask the Russian Academic Union to submit a detailed report on the distribution of Russian students in universities and technical schools with a view to deciding whether it would not be possible to distribute them in a more suitable manner among higher educational establishments. Many of these establishments contain few or no Russian students, though they would be perfectly well able to accept them, while certain others have perhaps too many.

“(4) To enable Russian scientists to pursue their studies or to carry on research abroad, the League of Nations will issue to them a letter of recommendation to assist them in carrying out visa formalities and obtaining passports. These scientists must be recommended to the League of Nations by the Office of the Academic Union, which will furnish the League with all necessary particulars as to their identity, their work, the scientific purpose and duration of their travels, etc.”

The resolutions were unanimously adopted by the Committee.

Professor DE HALECKI, on the subject of the last resolution on passports and visas for Russian emigrants, emphasised the fact that the League of Nations had already obtained from the Governments a promise to take steps in the matter. He therefore asked the Committee to authorise him to get into touch on this question with the Russian Refugee Department of the Secretariat.

This was agreed.

80. GENERAL REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE TO THE COUNCIL AND ASSEMBLY.

M. DE REYNOLD was re-elected general Rapporteur by acclamation.

It was agreed that the report should lay special stress on the following points : enquiry into the conditions of intellectual life and assistance for threatened countries ; conferences for the co-ordination of abstracts ; index bibliographicus ; revision of the Conventions of 1886 for the exchange of publications ; University Information Bureau ; protection of scientific property ; international co-operation for archæological excavation ; collaboration between the Mandates Commission and the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation as regards the regulations covering archæology in mandated territories.

81. RESOLUTION OF THE COMMITTEE REGARDING THE CONTINUATION OF PROFESSOR DE HALECKI'S WORK.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that Professor de Halecki had been temporarily lent to the Secretariat by Warsaw University. Professor de Halecki had done great work for the Committee and the Committee could not do without his able and devoted assistance. Warsaw University was very naturally anxious to recall Professor de Halecki. He felt sure that the Committee would express the wish that Professor de Halecki's assistance should be assured to it.

M. DE CASTRO proposed to go further and to take up the question with Warsaw University.

The Committee agreed to request its Chairman to make known to Warsaw University the signal services rendered to the Committee by Professor de Halecki. It was the unanimous view of the Committee that it was most important that Professor de Halecki should continue to assist it. It was understood that the point would be mentioned in the general report.

82. FURTHER WORK OF THE COMMITTEE.

Professor DE HALECKI observed that it was desirable to have another session of the Committee as soon as possible after the end of the Assembly in order effectively to organise assistance for the countries where intellectual life was threatened.

M. DE REYNOLD added that the representatives of the various national committees should be summoned to this session. It was necessary that the meeting should take place before the winter, since the position of intellectuals in certain countries would not allow a further delay.

M. DESTRÉE thought that the Committee should as soon as possible consider also the problems mentioned at the previous meeting by M. Gallié, the representative of the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers : namely, the extension of authors' rights (*droit de suite*, etc.). On the other hand, M. Ruffini had told him before his departure that a meeting

of the Committee in Italy would be welcomed by Italian opinion. In view of the fact that at the next meeting there would have to be convoked the representatives of the national committees in Central Europe, the session could easily without extra expense to the League of Nations take place in the north of Italy *e. g.* Turin, Milan or Venice. The representatives of the Central European Committees could very easily come to one of these towns, Venice for preference.

After discussion, it was agreed in principle that the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property should meet in October and the full Committee in December, preferably in Venice.

TWELFTH MEETING

held on August 1st, 1923, at 3.30 p.m.

Present : All the members present at the previous meeting.

83. CORRESPONDING MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE.

PROFESSOR DE HALECKI explained the question of correspondents. In many countries which were not represented by regular members of the Committee a considerable amount of interest had arisen in the Committee's work, and it would be useful for the Committee to be informed as to intellectual life in such countries. A precedent had been created by the nomination of M. Dopsch as correspondent for Austria, and the idea had been formed of appointing correspondents in other countries of Central and Eastern Europe ; but, since the national committees established in these countries must, by the terms of the Committee's resolution, choose a delegate to enter into relations with the Secretariat, it might perhaps be possible to use such delegates as correspondents. He pointed out that this procedure would settle the question as regards Europe, but not as regards Latin America.

M. DE CASTRO thought that the question was of great importance, above all for Latin America, which had but one representative on the Committee, though there were many countries in Latin America where intellectual life was highly developed. He proposed the nomination of correspondents by countries or perhaps rather by groups of countries, and pointed out that such nominations would be very favourably received in Latin American countries, where there was no lack of eminent personalities from amongst whom a choice could be made. He pointed out that there had just been established in the Secretariat a Latin American Bureau with which the Secretary of the Committee could get into touch in order to obtain information as to the enquiries to be undertaken in Latin American countries.

The CHAIRMAN said experience had already shown the utility of the Latin American Bureau in the matter of sending out the questionnaire.

The Committee decided that its Secretary should make use of the good offices of the Latin American Bureau to obtain information concerning Latin America.

The CHAIRMAN enquired whether, as regards correspondents, the Committee thought it desirable to appoint such correspondents in Latin American countries.

M. DESTRÉE was in no way opposed to M. de Castro's proposal, but thought that he should allude to one important point. In its choice, the Committee should be guided primarily by the wish to choose men who would be informative, and should leave out of account the principle of nationality. Otherwise all the countries would claim a correspondent. As a matter of fact, for certain countries there would be no advantage in having a correspondent, whereas for certain large countries it would be desirable to have more than one.

M. DE CASTRO pointed out that M. Destrée's observation was in agreement with his own proposal. He had stated that a correspondent might be chosen by groups of countries.

The CHAIRMAN thought that it would be particularly desirable to obtain the most complete information possible about Latin America. Generally speaking, he thought it preferable not to establish too precise rules as regards the correspondents. It was not at all necessary for the delegates of national committees automatically to acquire the title of correspondent.

The Committee decided to adopt the principle of correspondents within the limits indicated.

M. PÉRIGORD added that it would be desirable not to forget Canada. Intellectual life in Canada was highly developed.

The CHAIRMAN pointed out that the experiment could be begun in Latin America and in Canada. As regards the choice of personalities, the members of the Committee might think this question over and the Committee could choose two correspondents at its next session.

The Committee agreed with this procedure.

84. NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

M. LORENTZ enquired whether the time was ripe for discussing the national committees. He wished to explain to the Committee what he proposed to do when he returned to the Netherlands, where, as he had previously stated, there was a committee, the object of which was to supply foreigners with Dutch scientific publications. This Committee might form the nucleus of the new national committee. He proposed to approach the existing committee, to tell it

that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation was in complete sympathy with the work which it was doing and had had the idea of establishing national committees the functions of which would be wider than those of the existing committee. He would then propose to consider with this Dutch Committee, to which he belonged, the means of transforming it into a national Committee on Intellectual Co-operation by an increase in the number of its members, chosen as representing the various branches of knowledge. When this object was attained, he would get into touch with the Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. Would this be a desirable procedure ?

The CHAIRMAN, on behalf of the whole Committee, thought that it would be an excellent procedure.

M. LORENTZ added that in case of any difficulties he would consult the Chairman on the course to be pursued.

The CHAIRMAN, with the approval of the Committee, stated that this procedure would be adopted.

In reply to a question by Mlle. BONNEVIE, Professor DE HALECKI stated that the Council had, in October last, approved the idea of using in each country some intermediary organisation and had, in its January session, authorised the Secretariat to open official negotiations. The organisations in question had formed themselves spontaneously into national committees.

Mlle. BONNEVIE said she was thinking of her own country. A committee had been established for the distribution of books. She did not know whether this committee was in touch with the Secretariat. She was of opinion that at the meetings of delegates of such committees there should be present not only representatives of the countries in distress but also of representatives of the countries taking part in the work of relief.

M. LORENTZ noted that the situation was the same in Norway as in the Netherlands. The question was one of transforming the committee of which Mlle. Bonnevie had spoken into a national committee. Mlle. Bonnevie could take in Norway the steps which he was proposing to take in the Netherlands.

Professor DE HALECKI observed that in these two cases the countries concerned were represented on the international committee. It would seem to be clearly indicated that Mlle. Bonnevie and M. Lorentz should represent the national committees of these two countries.

M. LORENTZ pointed out that for meetings of a technical nature other delegates might be better qualified. Once the committees were established, he would propose that they informed the Secretary of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the fact of their establishment, and that the Secretary should acknowledge receipt of such notification and enter the committees among the various groups already constituted.

The CHAIRMAN thought that the relations between the national committees and the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should not be subject to too strict regulations. In view of the very diverse nature of the national committees, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should not be too severely bound.

After an observation by Mr. LOWES DICKINSON, *the Committee agreed that the national committees should take the initiative in such relations.*

85. EXPERTS OF THE COMMITTEE.

The CHAIRMAN stated that it might be necessary to proceed to the appointment of experts in the interval between sessions of the Committee.

On M. DE CASTRO's proposal, *the Committee decided that the Chairman should have full powers to name the experts the choice of whom might become necessary in the interval between sessions.*

The Committee confirmed in their functions the experts previously nominated, *viz.* M. Luchaire, M. Castella and M. Reverdin.

86. CREDITS NECESSARY FOR THE COMMITTEE.

The CHAIRMAN raised the question to what extent and in what form the question of credits necessary for the Committee should appear in the general report.

M. DE REYNOLD thought it desirable to state, with all necessary deference but with complete lucidity, that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation had done its utmost to leave out of account any schemes which were of too extended a scope in order to attempt to realise certain really useful and even necessary projects, and the Committee thought it desirable that the means should be afforded it of effectively continuing its work.

M. DESTRÉE recalled the statement made by him at a previous meeting and emphasised the fact that the Committee was not asking for credits for itself but for the work which it judged necessary.

Dr. NITOBÉ wished to submit certain observations on the subject of the general attitude of the League of Nations to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. He recalled the fact that a certain number of Members of the League, while appreciating at its really high value the work of the Committee, nevertheless considered that the League of Nations was first and foremost a political organisation which should not dissipate its efforts to too great an extent, above all in fields of action which were not expressly mentioned in the Covenant. He drew attention also to the instructions given to many delegates that every possible economy should be effected. At the same time he hoped that the credits granted to the Committee in the budget

estimates would be accepted by the forthcoming Assembly and would allow the Committee to achieve the greater part of the programme which it had mapped out for itself, with the possible reservation of the suppression of one session of the plenary committee in the forthcoming year.

After a statement by Mlle. BONNEVIE, who said that the Chairman might explain the programme of the Committee's work, not only before the Second Committee but also before the Fourth Committee of the Assembly, which had charge of all financial questions, the CHAIRMAN stated that he placed himself entirely at the disposal of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation with a view to speaking either in the Council or in the Committee of the Assembly of the League of Nations. He had done the same last year, but he was not of opinion that a general statement such as last year's, where he had only been able to repeat what was said in the report, was of any great utility.

As regards the credits to be asked for, a distinction should be made between those which were allocated to the actual work of the Committee and its Sub-Committees and those which would be necessitated by any special undertaking which the Committee might recommend. The reports of the Committee and its Sub-Committees would often result in advising certain action, and action nearly always involved expenditure.

The Committee decided that its general report should, on this question, read in outline as follows :

“The League of Nations will have observed that, beyond the expenditure necessitated by the meetings of the Committee and of the Sub-Committees by the summoning of experts and the publication of documents, etc., other expenses are involved by the proposals which the Committee is laying before it. These expenses are the consequence of the work which the Committee and its Sub-Committees have undertaken. Prominent among this supplementary expenditure is that entailed by the establishment of an international bureau for university information.”

87. NEW QUESTIONS FOR CONSIDERATION BEFORE THE NEXT SESSION BY THE COMMITTEE AND ITS SUB-COMMITTEES.

M. LUCHAIRE pointed out that the question of founding a periodical was not yet quite ripe for discussion and that the Sub-Committee on Publications would continue to consider the matter.

M. DESTREE was anxious to submit a list of questions which in his view were of immediate urgency for the Committee :

Authors' rights: National and international regulation of the right of the author to his work as regards publication, insertion, reproduction, translation.

Droit de suite: Moral right of opposing modifications and mutilations of an author's work.

Prolongation of rights in order to create national or international funds with a view to founding collective institutions for this purpose.

Protection of university or other titles acquired in the course of study (barristers, engineers, architects, etc.).

Identity cards for artists.

National and international foundations for :

(a) assistance, pensions, etc. ;

(b) the establishment of centres for studies or for work for artists.

The conclusions of M. Luchaire's report on the teaching of the history of art.

The Committee decided to put these questions on its agenda.

On the proposal of M. DESTREE and the CHAIRMAN, *the Committee decided to add to the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property, M. William Martin, representative of the International Labour Office.*

M. William MARTIN thanked the Committee and accepted the duties which it wished to confer upon him, under reservation of the agreement of the Director of the International Labour Office, who, he knew, took the greatest interest in the Committee's work.

After statements by M. LUCHAIRE and M. DE REYNOLD urging the importance of the Committee making every effort to consider certain artistic and purely literary questions, the study of which would develop in all the circles concerned a strong current of opinion favourable to the League of Nations, and by Mlle. BONNEVIE, who thought it preferable that the Committee's efforts should be concentrated on the work already undertaken, *the Committee decided, while noting the proposals in question, to confine itself for the moment to putting on its agenda, with a view to later consideration, the questions submitted by M. Destree and to add to the existing members of the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property, Mr. Wigmore, M. de Reynold and M. William Martin.*

M. DE CASTRO read the following statement :

“International Prizes as a means for facilitating Scientific Production.

“There can be no doubt that scientific production needs stimulating in various ways. It is undeniable that genuine investigators feel within themselves a real vocation which fortifies them and, to a great extent, ensures the success of their work. The greatest discoveries are the fruit of absolutely isolated and unassisted efforts. Nevertheless, it should be recognised that a certain modicum of competition necessarily creates a real motive force and promotes scientific production. From this point

of view the establishment of prizes plays an important part, whether these prizes are merely symbolical or whether they are of a pecuniary nature, and brings to the victor, besides a moral reward, an advantage in the nature of compensation for expenditure effected by men of science who are generally of a modest way of living precisely because of their lack of preoccupation with practical affairs. It is clear that the importance of such prizes is greater if they have an international character and if they bestow upon the savants who obtain them an ever-increasing reputation, while at the same time they set a seal upon their work and assure them of success in the world.

“It seems to me that, in view of the nature of the objects of the Committee on Intellectual Cooperation, this subject should be considered with interest in order that the question may be weighed as to whether from the institution of such prizes there would not result real advantages for international scientific production.

“I venture, therefore, to propose that a report should be drawn up on existing international prizes and that the practical means of founding new ones should be considered. I am certainly not blind to the difficulties in the way of the realisation of such an end, the first of which is to decide what funds could be made available for such prizes. But if we really wish effectively to practise intellectual co-operation it would not be unreasonable to suppose that the League of Nations would lend its patronage to this idea by making an appeal with its high authority both to individuals and to the various Governments.

“If this view is accepted in principle it could then be considered what would be proper conditions for the organisation of such prizes, which should cover not only works which are the result of spontaneous efforts and researches but also works carried out on the general lines proposed by the Committee specially concerned with this matter. This general provision would, it appears, considerably facilitate international scientific progress.”

M. LORENTZ, although in some doubt as to the results attainable, was of opinion that the question should be considered.

On the proposal of the CHAIRMAN, *M. de Castro's motion was referred to the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations, of which M. de Castro was a member.* It was understood that if M. de Castro could not attend the meetings of the Sub-Committee he would give his opinion in writing and thus assist the work of the Sub-Committee.

M. LUCHAIRE wished to point out, after the various proposals made by members of the Committee, that in other fields also there were other problems arising in the same way as those which the Committee had definitely taken up. He thought that artistic problems were of particular importance in view of the fact that they would associate the circles concerned with the work of the Committee.

He pointed out, among other things, the question of travelling facilities for artists, which was a development of the question of travelling facilities for university men.

M. DESTRÉE pointed out that the question had been settled without official intervention between France and Belgium, thanks to the establishment of the Rubens Institute and the Fragonard Institute, which saw to the exchange of artists between the two countries.

The Committee decided to consider this question.

M. LUCHAIRE drew attention, with some little hesitation on account of the vastness of the subject, to the growing importance of certain new arts, such as the cinema. Could the Committee consider the influence of the cinema upon the formation of the intellect? On this point he would only ask for authorisation to push a little further the enquiry which he had undertaken on the subject and which seemed to be desired by certain important cinema firms.

M. LORENTZ thought that the consideration of this question should be restricted to the consideration of international influence on the international films which involved a certain degree of co-operation between various countries.

M. DESTRÉE also thought that a study of this question would be important, less, perhaps, from the point of view of the improvement of the moral level of the cinema than with the object of preventing by means of an international understanding the employment of the cinema as a means of nationalist propaganda.

The Committee invited M. Luchaire to continue his investigations and to draw up a definite report if necessary.

M. LUCHAIRE wished to raise the question of scientific property as regards abstract sciences which were not capable of practical application and which did not share in the advantages provided for in M. Ruffini's scheme. How could the study of these abstract sciences be encouraged? In view, however, of M. de Castro's proposal, which was on the same lines and which the Committee had decided to consider, he would not press the point.

He wished to submit one last question: namely, that of statistics of intellectual life. He thought that it would be most useful for the work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and even of general interest, that the facts of intellectual life, when such facts could be determined, should be better known than they were at the moment. On this subject he had semi-officially got into touch with the International Institute of Statistics, which really understood the importance of the problem.

He would ask the Committee whether it thought it desirable for one of its members or one of its enquirers to be authorised to continue the negotiations begun or to submit the question to the Statistical Committee of the League of Nations.

The Committee invited M. Luchaire to continue his investigations and to submit any conclusions at which he might arrive.

88. COMPOSITION OF THE SUB-COMMITTEES.

The CHAIRMAN said that not all the members of the various Sub-Committees could be present at the various sessions. The Committee had just strengthened the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property; it might perhaps be able to do the same for the Sub-Committee on Bibliography. He asked Mlle. Bonnevie if she would consent to work on this Sub-Committee in view of the fact that she represented sciences in which the importance of bibliography was considerable.

Mlle. Bonnevie was nominated a member of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography.

On the proposal of Dr. NITOBÉ, the Committee requested its Chairman to express to Mme. CURIE-SKŁOWSKA the very great regret of the Committee at the fact that she had not been able to attend the current session.

89. VOTE OF THANKS TO THE CHAIRMAN.

M. LORENTZ, speaking in the absence of the Vice-Chairman by reason of his seniority, wished on behalf of the Committee to thank the Chairman for the very great impartiality and patience with which he had, during the past six days of incessant work, presided over the meetings of the Committee. He had guided the Committee through all its difficulties, both by lifting it to the lofty heights of his own thought and by guiding it with the same scrupulous care and attention through financial and practical questions. He wished to express to the Chairman the very lively gratitude of the whole Committee.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Lorentz sincerely for the remarks which he had made. He was much honoured and very proud of the words of appreciation uttered by the great savant, whose work had not only profoundly modified the whole conception of physics but had also radically affected certain philosophic ideas; he had, moreover, shown himself in the course of the current session as a master theorist in questions of intellectual co-operation, whose suggestions, at once idealist and practical, had been of the utmost value to the Committee. He was sure that the whole Committee would identify itself with the thanks which he expressed to M. Lorentz.

As to the flattering encomia which had been showered upon himself, he wished to return them to all the members of the Committee whose work in common had been of so intensive a nature and whose contributions one and all to the work of the Committee had been so signally valuable. He wished to associate in these words of praise the representatives of the Secretariat—Dr. Nitobé and Professor de Halecki—who had prepared the ground for the Committee's work with their usual devotion to duty, and also the interpreter and the other members of the Secretariat who had assisted in the work.

He wished at the end of the session to state that the Committee had always found itself in complete agreement, if not on methods, at least as to the object to be attained, which was the following: to organise as well as possible scientific work and scientific relations in the world and, above all, to find in a better scientific organisation means of drawing savants together and of assisting more and more effectively and powerfully the League of Nations in the great aim which it was pursuing: namely, the aim of drawing the nations together in spirit and, if possible, of realising a durable pacification of the world.

With this hope, he wished to close the session of the Committee, the next meeting of which would take place in the near future.

THIRTEENTH MEETING (PUBLIC)

held on August 2nd, 1923, at 11 a.m.

Present: all the members of the Committee present at the last meeting.

90. WORK OF THE COMMITTEE.

The following members of the Committee spoke in order to explain the work of the Committee:

M. BERGSON, Chairman of the Committee;

M. DE REYNOLD, general Rapporteur, who dealt with the enquiry into the condition of intellectual work and the organisation of assistance for countries where intellectual life was particularly threatened;

M. RUFFINI, Rapporteur for the question of scientific property;

Mr. LOWES DICKINSON, who dealt with inter-university co-operation;

M. DESTRÉE, who dealt with questions especially concerning art and artists;

M. LORENTZ, who gave his impressions on the work of the Committee;

Mr. WIGMORE, who explained the attitude of the United States, pointing out that "in the League's directly political action the United States of America was not yet represented, but that in its other and equally important activities the people of the United States were proud to be allowed the privilege of representation".

M. de CASTRO, who paid tribute to the memory of M. Ruy Barbosa, "the greatest intellectual glory of Latin America", who had died since the last session of the Committee.

The Committee decided that this speech should be inserted in extenso in its minutes.

The text of the address is as follows :

" Since the last meeting of our Committee we have lost a personality who was not only the greatest intellectual glory of Latin America but before all things a world figure, whose action has had a vital influence on international politics in recent years. I am speaking, as you will by now doubtless have understood, of M. Ruy Barbosa, late judge at the Permanent Court of International Justice.

" I will not now stay to recall to you what he was to my country in the course of his vast career as lawyer and politician — the peerless orator who pleaded in favour of all great causes of liberty, the statesman who exercised a preponderating influence in the political evolution of Brazil, the savant whose encyclopædic knowledge embraced everything that can excite the curiosity of the human mind. I prefer rather to recall, though briefly, the vital part which he played in international life from the time when he appeared in 1907 as Ambassador of Brazil at The Hague Conference, defending the juridical equality of States, and was proclaimed to be one of the greatest figures at that conference, where his ciceronian eloquence rose to heights to which it is indeed difficult to attain.

" Such was this man, who, in 1916, before the United States had declared war on Germany, raised his powerful voice in public in his country, showing her the road which she must tread to do honour to the cause of civilisation by the side of the Allies. It was he also who, a little later, on the occasion of a journey in the Argentine, set out, in an unforgettable lecture to the Faculty of Law, what were the duties of neutrals. Finally, in order to give you a true idea of this admirable lesson, I cannot deny myself the pleasure of recalling the action of the Chamber of Deputies in France in considering as an historic date the day when the Brazilian Congress ordered the reproduction in its annals of the following words on Ruy Barbosa : ' We all consider (I repeat the words of M. Gabriel Hanotaux) that when Ruy Barbosa explained the duty of neutrals by an appeal to conscience, he pronounced words which were of definitive moment both as regards the existing war and the future peace '.

" Since then his name has risen higher every day in the consideration of the world, until he attained that supreme point where public veneration places those personalities who are the living symbol of their nation. Above all, he was great because he was just, and it is from him that we have received the high message ' Justice alone is effective ; what is born of justice is alone durable '.

" Gentlemen, I think that our Committee will in its turn perform an act of justice by paying tribute at to-day's meeting to the memory of the great departed who lived only for learning and put learning at the service of human civilisation.

" Genius is immortal, and those who are genius incarnate are the links in an infinite chain which traverses the ages. Men pass the torch of life from hand to hand, as Lucretius said in his famous verse, but there are some who receive the torch of genius from one generation to transmit it to the next. Of such was Ruy Barbosa."

Annex 1.

THE FIRST RESULTS OF THE ENQUIRY CONCERNING COUNTRIES OF CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE.

REPORT BY THE SECRETARY OF THE COMMITTEE.

I.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

The countries into whose intellectual life the Secretary of the Commission was instructed to enquire are the same as those which attracted the special attention of the Committee at its very first session, and to which it was decided to grant, so far as possible, all the assistance necessary for the development of their intellectual life. Austria, whose almost desperate situation made it necessary to appoint a national correspondent, is not included in this report.

The special interest which the Committee displayed in regard to these countries is of itself sufficient justification for a more detailed enquiry than might otherwise be necessary, for it is only with the aid of the most complete information that the Committee will be able to proceed with the relief work which it has decided to undertake. But there are other features which emphasise the importance of this part of the enquiry. In the first place, the countries in question have all suffered terribly from the war, which lasted, so far as most of them were concerned, longer than in the other countries of Europe. For instance, the reply from the Scientific Society of Przemysl points out that the region in which its work is carried on was devastated during the war as ruthlessly as the most sorely-tryed districts of France or Belgium. Again, too little has been known in the West regarding the intellectual life of these countries; the profound modifications which it has undergone as a result of the political and social changes of the last few years are also matters which should be brought to the knowledge of other countries. An eminent Czech professor, M. Klir, pointed out that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would be doing a most useful work if it could supply the different countries which are so imperfectly acquainted with each other's circumstances with information as to the institutions by which their intellectual life is expressed, and the resources from which it is fed. Lastly, in those regions where international differences have unfortunately been particularly acute and have not yet been altogether settled, intellectual co-operation offers a remarkably effective instrument for pacification and union. It would be difficult to find a more striking passage than that in which the Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy at Skoplje (Uskub) states, in his reply, that general participation in the study of European science and literature would be the most effective agency for drawing closer together the very heterogeneous elements of the Macedonian population.

In addition to these considerations, we have been furnished with some new arguments by the first results of the enquiry. This enquiry, and the general work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, aroused the keenest interest in the countries in question, and many of their institutions begin their replies to the questionnaire by thanking the Committee for having borne them in mind. Moreover, from the moment when the replies began to arrive a fact of the highest importance became apparent: it is true that all the difficulties which press upon the intellectual life of the whole world are encountered in an intensified form in the countries of Eastern and Central Europe, but, on the other hand, in spite of all obstacles, intellectual life in those countries has received an astonishing and very encouraging impetus since peace was restored. New possibilities of development have appeared; new centres of intensive intellectual activity have been established; the organs of intellectual life, though in many cases weak and insecure, have, nevertheless, increased in number and improved in efficiency owing to the desperate nature of the struggle which they have to wage against economic perils.

We can therefore safely assert that the intellectual relief work which the Committee spontaneously decided to undertake in favour of these countries will not only be of value as a generous effort of international solidarity but also for its immediate interest and usefulness to the whole of our civilisation. Indeed, as the Rapporteur to the Committee said in his note on the organisation of the enquiry, one of the chief objects of this great work must be to find an answer to the grave problem which he formulated as follows: Is this civilisation of ours, which is undoubtedly in peril, really in a state of decadence, and are the many pessimistic voices which prophesy its doom justified?

The replies which reach us daily from the countries whose situation has aroused the most anxiety prove, in spite of all, the astounding vitality and capacity for endurance of our civilisation. This is proved by the fact that at the very moment when some ancient centres of learning appear to be on the verge of extinction, many new centres, rich with promise for the future, are springing successively into life in these distant lands; also by the fact that the intellectual exhaustion which is apparent in some countries of the older civilisation is offset by sanguine enthusiasm in countries whose intellectual life had hitherto been kept in shackles; and finally on the most exposed frontiers of European civilisation there is evidence of a persistent desire to keep in close contact with that civilisation and to assist in overcoming the forces which had temporarily retarded its progress.

For all these reasons it has appeared necessary to organise as complete an enquiry as possible into the situation of the countries in question.

The necessity of framing a combined statement of the problem and obtaining a general view of it was seen to be one of immediate urgency. But in order to avoid becoming involved in too extensive a work, it was necessary to begin with the forms in which intellectual effort finds its most direct expression and which fall most obviously within the field of action of the Committee, *i.e.*, with science, literature, art and higher education.

Having regard to the state of opinion in these countries, and in particular to the interest — so fervent in some cases — which is shown in the work of our committee, it appeared essential that the enquiry, though directed from Geneva, should nevertheless be carried out by the interested parties themselves and with their general and immediate co-operation. For this reason I have carefully avoided forming conclusions of too subjective a nature from the results of my own theoretical enquiries. I thought it wiser to send out as many questionnaires as possible, to patiently await the arrival of the replies, and, in regard to all details, to consult the most authoritative individuals and institutions in the countries under review — in a word, to induce them to state their own case and to expound their own views and aspirations to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Their wishes can fortunately be satisfied by the Committee.

Though the institutions which were consulted refer to the economic crisis and the lack of financial resources as one of the main obstacles to their intellectual life, they fully recognise that the Committee is not in a position to grant them pecuniary assistance. In no case have gifts of money been requested. All replies agree in stating that the financial crisis — severe as it is — can be surmounted provided that the more favoured countries assist the nations which have been most sorely tried to escape from their intellectual isolation. All that they ask the Committee to do is to assist these countries, in a general way, in procuring scientific and literary publications from the countries where the exchange is high, not by means of gifts but by a system of exchange or by securing reductions — for the time being at any rate — in the charges for the publications. They also ask for facilities for travelling and university exchanges; these facilities are all the more required because the geographical situation of these countries aggravates the difficulties due to their depreciated currencies. The problem is therefore one which is clearly within the competence of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and which has indeed already been taken under consideration by its library and university sub-committees.

II.

ANALYSIS OF THE REPLIES RECEIVED.

(1) *Albania.*

The only institution in Albania to which one of the Committee's questionnaires could be sent is the public library recently established at Tirana. The director of this library has not yet replied to the questionnaire, but he has informed us, through Dr. Blinishti, Director of the Permanent Albanian Secretariat to the League, that the Tirana library would be very glad to obtain scientific publications in French, English and German, since the need of such publications is keenly felt. Dr. Blinishti, who is well acquainted with the intellectual situation in his country, has kindly undertaken to write a brief report on it; this report has not yet reached the Secretariat.

(2) *Bulgaria.*

Some twelve questionnaires were sent out to the different institutions and associations of this country. No replies have yet been received, but the National Bulgarian Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, established by the University of Sofia, has promised to expedite their despatch and to furnish the Committee at an early date with all the information it requires.

In addition, the Bulgarian Minister for Public Education has given a very detailed reply to the questionnaire which the Committee sent to the different Governments. This report, which is 17 pages long, gives information not only on the organisation of public education (primary, secondary and higher education) in this country and on the budget of the Department of Public Education, etc. but also contains very exact information on the salaries of intellectual workers from 1913 to 1923. These statistical data will doubtless be of great interest to the Committee.

The reply of this department also contains a very detailed list of the scientific, literary and artistic institutions, the greater number of which are not to be found in any generally available publication; this list will enable us to send a new set of questionnaires to Bulgaria. Finally, the information given regarding instruction in foreign languages in Bulgaria, the French institute established at Sofia, and, in general, regarding international relations, appears to be of great importance for the Committee's enquiry. It is interesting to note that the principle of the equivalence of foreign diplomas has been recognised to a large extent, but that no exchange of students has so far been organised, while the exchange of professors has been confined to a small number of cases.

(3) *Esthonia.*

Some twenty questionnaires were sent to the principal institutions and associations of this country. As regards Tartu (Dorpat), the chief centre of intellectual life in Esthonia,

the university of this city has kindly undertaken to distribute the questionnaires to the different addresses. Seven replies have been received up to date, and their very detailed and precise character is evidence of the keen interest which has been aroused by the enquiry.

It would be premature to make use of these replies for a synthetic report, for the most important, that of the university, on which nearly all the other organisations are *de jure* or *de facto* dependent, has not yet reached us. We may, however, point out at once some interesting details contained in the first replies.

The university institutions — among which the Library and the Astronomical and Meteorological Observatories have sent us very full reports — suffered severely owing to the transfer of their collections of books, etc. into the interior of Russia in pursuance of orders given by the Russian Government during the world-war. Owing to this cause, the work of these institutions was interrupted for some years, and the books of the University Library were not all returned until 1920, after the conclusion of peace between Esthonia and Russia; thanks to the assistance of many of the students, it was possible to reorganise the whole library and to reopen it in 1921. On the other hand, the Astronomical Observatory only succeeded in obtaining the return, on the conclusion of peace, of a few instruments and books which had been carried off, the greater part having been kept in Russia and lost during the civil war; to-day this Observatory only possesses one up-to-date instrument. The whole of the instruments of the Meteorological Observatory were lost in transit, and it does not at present possess sufficient funds to replace them.

The financial situation of all these university institutions and the conditions under which their small staff are forced to live certainly present great hardship, but all the replies agree that this is not the main obstacle in the way of their development. Their chief need is that of suitable buildings and premises; the University Library is, from this point of view, in a very precarious situation and lacks the funds which are required under present-day conditions to erect the new building which had been planned in 1914. The premises in which the Astronomical Observatory is accommodated are not suited to its present requirements. But the most pressing difficulty is that of acquiring foreign scientific works. The international exchanges of publications, which were interrupted by the war, have been resumed with many countries, but the three replies which we are discussing point out that since the war it has been quite impossible to obtain French scientific publications, and they emphasise the absolute necessity of a regular system of exchange with that country; even the University Library has only succeeded so far in arranging exchanges with one French institution: the University of Strasburg. It has only been able, up to the present, to obtain loans of books and manuscripts from German and Swedish libraries. The Meteorological Observatory adds that the exchange of publications with the United States is also far from adequate. The most burning question, however, is that of scientific periodicals, of which the University Library received 950 before the war, whereas now it receives only 270. It seems all the more desirable to satisfy this requirement since all these institutions have undertaken work of great importance and are rapidly developing. The University Library has not only been reorganised on its technical side but has created a special department for all works dealing with Esthonia. The Meteorological Observatory has undertaken work which includes important hydrographical research, based on the programme traced out by the International Commission for the Exploration of the Baltic Sea.

The two chief museums at Tartu — the Museum of National Antiquities and the National Esthonian Museum — are in very close touch with the University. Their international relations are little developed, but the replies of their directors are most enthusiastic and optimistic as to the future prospects of their institutions. They lay stress on the growing interest displayed by all classes in their work and on the support which they are receiving from the Government and the University authorities. The National Museum is now more favourably situated than at any time during the first ten years of its existence. This museum was founded in 1908, but it met with almost insurmountable difficulties under the Russian regime and suffered severely by the Bolshevik revolution and the German occupation. Since 1919 it has received generous subventions from the Esthonian Government, which, in 1922, placed at its disposal a special building not far from the town; it continues, however, to be a private institution, so that the salaries of its officials are lower than those of the State.

The reply of the Director of Municipal Archives at Tartu merely lays stress on the inadequacy of his premises.

The Esthonian Scientific Society, the chief scientific body in this country, has also submitted a very detailed report. It was founded in 1838 to study the past history and present situation of the Esthonian people, their language and their country; at present it devotes most of its energies to archæology, special societies having been founded to deal with the other departments of its work.

This society has also been able to develop under much more favourable conditions since the creation of Esthonia as an independent State. It was suppressed in 1914 by the Russian Government, and in 1919 was entirely reorganised under the auspices of the University. It states definitely in its reply that, thanks to the support of the University and the Government, it is not faced with any insurmountable financial difficulties. It receives numerous donations, which have enabled it to undertake, among other work, the publication of a bibliographical and critical annual, which contains an epitome in German of all the articles written in Esthonian and so assists Esthonian scholars in maintaining their international connections. These connections have made a fair amount of progress, seeing that the society has a regular exchange of publications with 89 foreign societies; but these are for the most part German and Scandinavian societies, besides some Finnish, Polish, Hungarian and other associations; relations with Western countries do not seem to have been yet established.

(4) *Finland.*

Upwards of 40 questionnaires have been sent to the institutions and associations of this country, of which about three-fourths have their headquarters at Helsingfors. A few questionnaires were also sent to some eminent experts. So far nine replies have come in, and though they are all highly interesting and very complete, they emanate from organisations so different in character that they cannot yet be made use of for the compilation of one or more synthetic reports.

Most of these replies emanate from learned societies, so that it will shortly be possible to compile this portion of the final report. It will, however, be necessary to await the replies of the two chief societies : the Finnish Scientific Society and the Finnish Academy of Science. Urgent reminders have been sent requesting replies from these bodies.

The societies which have hitherto replied are the Neophilological Society, founded in 1885 ; the Society for the study of Swedish Literature, 1885 ; the Archæological Society, 1870 ; the Finnish Historical Society, 1875 ; and the Finnish Literary Society, 1897. All these societies are remarkable for their extreme activity, which finds expression in their numerous publications. They all complain of the economic situation caused by the depreciation of the Finnish mark, which prevents them from expanding their publications, and even from continuing some of those which were started before the war. Even societies which possess a very large membership, such as the Society for the Study of Swedish Literature, which has nearly 4,000 members, are feeling the pinch of the situation.

The international relations of these societies are confined to the exchange of publications with foreign societies. These exchanges are as a rule well developed, and their field is expanding. The foremost place is held by the Archæological Society which exchanges its publications with many learned societies in twenty-one different countries.

The Finnish Literary Society does not content itself with encouraging the development of Finnish literature, but also concerns itself with the professional interests of authors ; a desire has even been expressed that it should be converted into a purely vocational organisation. In particular, it deals with the protection of literary and artistic property ; it also presents prizes and rewards, but unfortunately it only disposes of very limited funds for this purpose. It is considering the establishment of a bureau for literary research, and a Home of Rest for authors.

Of the other Finnish institutions which have so far replied to the questionnaire, the National Finnish Museum is intimately connected with the Archæological Society referred to above, and maintains connections with foreign countries through that society. This museum also complains of the difficulties of the present financial situation ; nevertheless, the scheme for the enlargement of the museum has been almost entirely completed, and the recent increases of salaries have improved the position of its officials. The director of this institution states that the public takes great interest in its collections.

The reply of the director of the Finnish State Archives also lays stress on financial difficulties ; these Archives are divided into two sections — an historical and an administrative section. Lack of funds prevents this institution from completing its library and from establishing collections of archives in the provinces. The financial situation of its officials has only recently undergone some improvement.

In view of the stress which all the replies from Finland lay on the financial problem, special interest attaches to the reply of the Central Statistical Bureau at Helsingfors, which contains a general survey of the economic situation. This reply points out that the cost of living reached its maximum in November 1921, but is still eleven times as great as before the war. The salaries of the officials were quite inadequate up to the end of 1922. The salaries of the higher officials are scarcely equivalent in value to one-half or one-third of the pre-war salaries. Details are given regarding the recent reforms.

The Statistical Bureau points out that, speaking generally, the exchange of publications and information with analogous offices in foreign countries is working fairly well, but that it is a serious burden for a country with low exchange, owing to the high cost of printing and postage. These exchanges would prove much simpler in practice if official statistical work was concentrated under a single administration in every country, as is the case in Finland.

As regards universities, the Finnish University at Turku (Abo) is the only one which has hitherto replied. This is a private university, which was founded quite recently, and opened on June 27th, 1922. At present it only possesses two faculties, literature and science. It is proposed to institute a faculty of political science. Some details regarding this University are given in an English pamphlet attached to its reply.

It will evidently be necessary, before compiling a report on the universities of Finland, to await the replies of the chief University at Helsingfors and that of the Swedish University at Turku.

(5) *Greece.*

With the aid of the Permanent Greek Secretariat to the League a list was prepared of the chief institutions, and the most eminent experts of this country, and twenty-two questionnaires were sent out to the various learned societies at Athens, besides thirty questionnaires to experts. The library at Corfu, the chief intellectual centre of that province, was also consulted. M. A. Andreadès, one of the most eminent Greek experts, professor of statistics and financial science at the University of Athens, has kindly undertaken to draw up a general report on intellectual life in Greece. Accordingly, copies of all the individual replies which reach the Secretariat are being sent to him as they come in. As M. Andreadès' report will probably be

available before long, it appears unnecessary at this moment to discuss in detail the replies which have hitherto been received.

It may, however, be observed that interesting material was supplied by the National Observatory and by the Society for Byzantine Study at Athens, and above all by the University of that city. The University's reply is accompanied by very detailed statistical tables showing, for the period 1913-1922, and for every faculty of the University, the number of professors, the number of students (which has increased, particularly in the faculties of law and medicine), the number of examinations passed, with notes on the fluctuations of the budget, which has shown a large deficit since 1921-1922, and finally, the many foreign universities with which the University of Athens exchanges publications. This reply also shows that exchanges of professors take place very rarely, and that there are hardly any foreign students at the University.

Four individuals whose opinion was invited by means of the questionnaires sent to experts, have already sent in very interesting reports which might perhaps be attached to that of M. Andreadès: Professors Hondros and Remoundos of the University of Athens furnish statements on the present situation in their special spheres (physics and mathematics); Dr. Cawadias writes on medical science, and M. Nicoloudis discusses the evolution of the Greek Press during the last ten years.

All these reports lay stress on the peculiar difficulties with which Greek scholars have been confronted owing to the continuous wars since 1913, the political crises through which their country has passed, the fall of the exchange, and the lack of a National Academy.

M. REMOUNDOS concludes by recommending the creation of an international organisation, having as its chief objects: (1) the exchange of publications; (2) the exchange of professors; (3) the development of scientific international congresses, perhaps under the auspices of the League of Nations (the same desire is expressed by Dr. Cawadias); and (4) the foundation of an inter-university association.

(6) *Hungary.*

Hungary is one of the countries in which the keenest and most widespread interest has been aroused by the work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. At the very outset of the enquiry, the Academy of Science (under whose auspices the Hungarian Committee on Intellectual Co-operation has been established) sent the Secretariat a preliminary statement on the condition of intellectual life in that country; this statement included some general observations, and a special section on universities and high schools. The Academy also published a report on intellectual life in Hungary, and sent a printed copy to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

This printed document, supplemented by the data contained in the very numerous replies which are sent in to Geneva by the experts and learned societies, might serve as a basis for the final report on Hungary. The list of these institutions and individuals was prepared with the help of the Permanent Hungarian Secretariat to the League, and the number of questionnaires sent out amounted to about 90 for institutions and more than 50 for experts. Twenty-five very detailed replies have so far come in from various learned bodies (including 22 at Budapest), and from eminent individuals. Quite recently the Hungarian Government has sent its official reply which is very comprehensive. As the report printed by the Hungarian Academy sums up all the essential facts, it appears unnecessary to discuss the various replies in detail at this moment. It will suffice to point out that they contain most valuable material on the higher educational institutions, the chief museums of Budapest, and the learned societies, beginning with the Academy itself. The reply of the University of Budapest alone consists of a full report, which occupies fifteen pages, and is accompanied by some twenty pages of statistical tables; the reply of the Polytechnic High School of the same city — known as St. Joseph's University of Technical Science — is no less detailed.

(7) *Latvia.*

Some fifteen questionnaires were sent out to the chief institutions and associations at Riga and Mitau, but unfortunately only one reply has so far reached the Secretariat. This is a report on historical studies in Latvia, drawn up by Dr. H. de Bruningk, a former Director of the Archives of the Latvian nobility, and an active collaborator with all the historical societies of that country. This report gives a very interesting survey of the immense work — particularly in the publication of historical documents — which had been carried out just before the war, but which was afterwards seriously hampered by the war, and especially by the Bolshevik invasion. This work, however, is now receiving active encouragement (including financial support) from the Government of the Latvian Republic.

(8) *Lithuania.*

The chief centre of intellectual life in the Republic of Lithuania is the University of Kovno. All details regarding the foundation and present state of this University are contained in a pamphlet published in Lithuanian and English by the Rector of the University.

It will be sufficient here to draw attention to the circular letter accompanying this pamphlet, containing an appeal for the supply of scientific publications for this young University.

The very important material contained in this publication will form the basis of a general report on intellectual life in Lithuania, to be published shortly by the Lithuanian committee

on intellectual co-operation. In this report account will also be taken of the replies of the Central Library, the Kovno Museum, and the Society of Lithuanian Professors, to which special questionnaires were sent.

(9) *Poland.*

In accordance with a suggestion by Mme. Curie-Sklodowska, the whole of the organisation of the enquiry as regards Poland was entrusted to the Mianowski Fund (a foundation for the furtherance of scientific work). This institution is specially qualified to undertake this work, as since 1918 it has conducted permanent and widespread investigations into the organisation, needs and progress of scientific knowledge in Poland. It has sent to the Secretariat of the Committee the four annual reports in which it has published, in Polish, the results of this enquiry. The fourth volume of this publication contains summaries in French of all the articles, some of which deal with work connected with the organisation of scientific knowledge in countries other than Poland, such as France and the United States.

The reports furnished by the Mianowski Fund to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will give a general account of all these works, and will be supplemented by the replies to the Committee's questionnaires, which the Fund has forwarded to all the Polish Institutions concerned.

The President of the Fund informs the Secretariat of the Committee that the first of these reports, which will be completed very shortly, will deal with the work of learned societies. It will contain a detailed report on the work of the Polish Academy, prepared on the occasion of its 50th anniversary, which is being celebrated this year.

Several of the Institutions which have been consulted have sent to Geneva copies of their replies, and it may therefore be hoped that the report dealing with institutions for higher education will also be completed in the near future.

Among the institutions which have shown the greatest activity in collaborating with the Mianowski Fund is the Union of Polish Learned Societies of Lemberg. This Union, which was founded in 1919, includes at present nearly 30 scientific societies and institutions in Lemberg and Eastern Galicia generally. Before the war it was in this part of Poland that the greatest intellectual progress had been made and it was also this part of Poland which suffered most from the events of the years 1914-1920. This Union sent out to its affiliated societies a supplementary questionnaire of its own in order to ascertain their most urgent needs. It has now forwarded to the Secretariat of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation copies of all the replies, and the requests made by a number of these societies. These requests particularly refer to the exchange of publications. Four societies of Lemberg and the Scientific Society of Przemyśl sent lists of all the foreign publications which they would like to obtain, either at reduced prices or in exchange for their own publications. Some societies have also given the names of savants who would like to carry out study and research abroad, and ask whether it would be possible to enable them to do so. The members of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will remember that the first three numbers of the Bulletin were sent to them.

(10) *Roumania.*

Some 50 Questionnaires have been sent to the Institutions and Associations of this country, and about one-half have been forwarded by the Roumanian Academy to institutions at Bucharest. The Academy has also sent a further list of experts who should be consulted. Up to the present 10 very detailed replies have been received from Roumania. They cannot as yet be utilised for a synthetic work on the subject, as the only ones which are really complete are the four replies from the German scientific institutions of Sibiu-Hermannstadt¹.

The most important of these replies is that of the Roumanian Academy itself. Since its foundation this Academy has formed a bond of intellectual union for all Roumanians, many of whom before the war lived beyond the frontiers of their own country. The Academy's report points out that all branches of its work have received a great impetus as a result of the union of all the Roumanian provinces in a single State. It is preparing a scheme of re-organisation and development which will enable it to extend its work both at home and in its relations with other countries. Unfortunately this development — particularly as regards international relations — is hampered, due to the depreciation of Roumanian currency. The exchange of publications with the academies of other countries is being carried on satisfactorily, but it is extremely difficult for the Roumanian Academy to take an effective part either in the work or in the congresses of international scientific associations which have been organised since the war. Hitherto, therefore, it has had to confine its efforts in this field to co-operation with the International Academic Union.

One of the chief scientific societies of Roumania — the Royal Geographical Society — has also sent in a very full report, with numerous annexes. Founded in 1875, it now has a membership of 2,762. It wishes to undertake further synthetic publications, and would also like to establish branches in Bessarabia, Bukovina, Transylvania and the Banat, but unfortunately it suffers from lack of funds, and does not possess suitable premises. It exchanges its numerous publications with leading geographical societies throughout the world.

Interesting information has also been supplied regarding historical research in Roumania. Professor N. Jorga has given a survey of its general characteristics; he has also supplied the

¹ The Society for promoting Roumanian literature and culture, which has its seat in the same town, has just sent a most valuable and complete report.

Committee with information on the Institute for South-Eastern Europe, and on the Roumanian Historical Commission, of which he is the head. The governing body of the State archives has also given us account of the history and organisation of that institution, which possesses the richest collection of Roumanian historical documents, and has branches in Moldavia, Bessarabia and Transylvania.

The report of the Central Meteorological Institute of Bucharest, which forms one of the sections of the Department of Agriculture, gives an account of all the theoretical and practical work carried on by that institute, not only at its headquarters, but also throughout the system of meteorological stations, a map of which, with explanatory tables, is attached to the report.

The Roumanian Bureau for International Exchanges was founded in 1922, as part of the Meteorological Institute. Despite the scanty funds at its disposal it has been able to distribute during its first year a number of scientific publications, which have been sent from abroad, particularly from the United States and also from Poland and Belgium. Next year the work of this exchange bureau may be extended, as it has been endowed with special funds. The report lays stress, however, upon the extremely difficult financial position of the Institute. Despite its reorganisation, which has been in hand since 1920, it is threatened with a complete stoppage of its work, due entirely to financial difficulties. The Institute's report contains an extremely interesting general survey of the precarious position of the intellectual classes in Roumania. It points out that their salaries are inadequate, and that intellectual workers do not receive any payment either for articles published by them in reviews or for their public lectures.

Among provincial institutions a very detailed reply has been received from the Polytechnic School of Temesvar, which was founded only in 1920. An institution of this kind was particularly necessary because Roumania had hitherto only possessed one Polytechnic Institute, that of Bucharest, and also because the Banat contains a large number of industrial enterprises at which students of the Polytechnic School can carry out practical work during their vacations. This school, though only recently founded, at present possesses a staff of 28 teachers and 416 students. In its reply it also emphasises the fact that its development is being hindered by financial difficulties, which have compelled it to send out appeals for the support of the whole country. It is extremely difficult to provide the requisite staff, owing to the inadequacy of the salaries offered, and particularly because better posts (from the material point of view) can easily be obtained in industrial establishments. The students live under conditions of great hardship; and the school, which does not possess a suitable building, has begun to erect a number of special out-buildings, one of which is used as a hostel for the students. The building programme which is at present projected will take nearly ten years to complete.

As regards the intellectual situation of the Saxons of Transylvania, who live principally at Sibiu, special mention should be made of two learned societies, one for the study of Transylvanian questions and the other for the study of natural history. This town also contains a large museum — the Bruckenthal Museum — as well as an office for the archives of the town and of the Saxon nation.

The very carefully compiled reports of these four organisations lay special stress upon the serious financial difficulties which at present prevent learned societies from keeping up important publications, and make it impossible for the Museum and the archives to go on purchasing even the most necessary books. The governing body of the Museum, however, gratefully acknowledges that since 1923 it has been granted a Government subsidy. The public shows considerable interest in this work, and the museum and the archives, in particular, refer to encouraging possibilities of development. These institutions, though local in character, are nevertheless of considerable interest for intellectual workers of other countries, — a fact which will be particularly realised by a perusal of the list of foreign savants who have worked in recent years at the Library Archives Office of Sibiu. All these institutions exchange their publications with foreign societies, but some of the relations which they maintained before the war have not yet been restored, and the conditions of postal transport were until recently somewhat unsatisfactory. Of late, however, certain improvements have been made in this respect.

(11) *Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.*

About thirty questionnaires and several letters to experts have, up to the present, been sent to that country. The documents sent to institutions at Belgrade have been forwarded to their addresses by the Serbian Academy. The National Commission, created under the auspices of that Academy, announces that all the replies will shortly be sent. Up to the present the only report sent in from a Belgrade institution is that from the National Museum.

This reply describes the tragic fate which has overtaken this museum since 1914. During the war its buildings were destroyed and its collections scattered. After the conclusion of peace, the remainder of its collections was temporarily installed in a private house under very unsuitable conditions, and it has proved impossible to reorganise and reopen the museum. Despite the public interest in the museum, it was only found possible a few months ago to house it in a modern building available for public use. Despite all these difficulties, to which must be added the inadequacy of its financial resources, the museum intends to establish scientific publications and organise scientific expeditions in all parts of the country, and is now in course of publishing a number of archaeological works. It has not yet been able to re-establish regular relations with similar institutions abroad. Several replies have been received from higher educational institutions recently established in different parts of the Kingdom. That of the University of Laibach, which was founded in 1919 for Slovenia, refers to the fact that joint

statutes are being prepared for all the universities of the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. These statutes provide for the organisation of a Council of Rectors, and the publication of a joint university review.

The University of Laibach itself contains five faculties (philosophy, law, medicine, technical science and theology) one of which — medicine — has not yet been fully established. About 40 seminaries and institutions have been founded, and the vigour of University life is evinced by the fact that there are about 24 students' associations. The University contains at present 126 professors, lecturers, etc., and about 1,200 students, including some 300 foreigners, most of the latter coming from Italy and Russia. There are also a number of Austrians and Czechoslovaks. At present the University only exchanges its publications with similar institutions in the Slav countries, but it is preparing a series of regular exchanges with all countries. In its reply, special mention is made of the visit of Professor A. Meillet of the Collège de France, who lectured at Laibach University in 1921.

At the old University of Zagreb (Agram), which is stated to be sending a detailed reply shortly, there was founded in 1919, among others, a veterinary institute, which it is proposed to attach to the University by making it a special faculty. The reply received from this school points out that the chief difficulties which prevent the development of the school are inadequate financial resources and the lack of premises and housing accommodation for the staff. It maintains regular relations with the Veterinary Institute of Brunn in Czechoslovakia, and in 1922 one of its professors made a study of similar institutes at Vienna and in Germany.

Quite recently, in 1921, a university was founded at Uskub, the capital of Serbian Macedonia. At present it only consists of a faculty of philosophy, which is devoted chiefly to the study of literature, but it intends to open a new section for mathematics and natural science. It also desires to develop the teaching of languages and to complete the as yet inadequate equipment of the historical and ethnographical museums and various institutions attached to it. At present its staff consists of 12 professors, and the students number about 100.

The reply from this university lays special stress on the lack of material resources and concludes by an urgent appeal to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to enable it to acquire books and instruments which it cannot obtain for itself owing to the unfavourable rate of exchange of the dinar. This new university is to become an intellectual centre for the whole of Macedonia.

Lastly, a reply with documentary evidence has been sent by the principal scientific institution of Dalmatia, the Archæological Museum of Spalato. This museum possesses very large collections, and although the Director regrets that the public does not take sufficient interest in it, the number of visitors has been rapidly increasing since the conclusion of peace and is now reaching the pre-war number (nine to ten thousand). The museum is making efforts to promote scientific work in the province of Dalmatia, and its Director is also in charge of the preservation of historical museums. The relations with similar institutions in the Serb, Croat, Slovene provinces are as yet inadequate, but in October 1922 the Congress of Serb, Croat, Slovene experts in archæology, history and ethnography which met at Belgrade laid the basis of an international organisation of museums which is to remove this difficulty. A considerable number of publications and a great deal of information is still exchanged with foreign museums, particularly with Austrian institutions, to which the Spalato Museum was formerly attached. The Director of the museum regrets, however, that no international museum organisation exists to promote their regular co-operation.

(12) *Czechoslovakia.*

In Czechoslovakia the Committee's enquiry was greatly helped by the assistance of the Czech National Committee which has been organised under the auspices of the Prague Academy. This Committee assisted in drawing up a list of institutions and persons, to whom a large number of questionnaires (about 200) were sent. Moreover, it is Czechoslovakia which has hitherto returned the greatest number of replies (38 from learned societies and 11 reports from experts, 10 being Czechoslovaks and one German).

The replies received provide almost complete documentary information on certain aspects of the intellectual life of this country, and several draft reports have accordingly been drawn up which are at the disposal of the members of the Committee. The most important of these reports deals with higher education; it is divided into two sections, which refer respectively to universities and higher educational establishments. The very elaborate and detailed reply sent by the Charles University, which also contains information on the organisation of Czechoslovak Universities in general, provided a sound basis on which to work, and as regards higher educational institutions the same purpose was served by the replies received from the two technical schools of Prague (the Czech and the German). Another report treats of books as instruments of work and research. The first part of this report deals with libraries; it is based on detailed reports received from all the large libraries in Prague. The second part sets forth the work of numerous associations, including the Slovak associations, which promote popular education by the publication of scientific and literary handbooks. Almost all these associations have replied to the Committee's questionnaires. The replies hitherto received from learned societies and scientific activities in various special subjects have enabled a general introduction to be drafted setting forth the most salient facts, as well as a chapter on the Academy of Sciences and special reports on philosophy and technical sciences. In these two reports use is made of the replies from learned societies and also of the particularly interesting reports sent by leading experts. Less complete but no less interesting material has also been received on the study of philology, geography and chemistry. Certain historical societies have also replied, and a general report has been promised on work in this field. Some of the replies from

distinguished experts deal with the study of law, but the replies from legal associations are not yet to hand.

Since — as we have already stated — several general reports are practically ready for printing, there would appear to be no need in this report to examine individual replies.

* * *

The secretariat of the Committee has also sent several questionnaires to the principal scientific institutions of *Constantinople*, as Dr. Nitobé, who is in charge of the enquiry in Asia, thought it would be better to include Turkey among the Balkan States.

Two detailed replies have been received, one from the Museum of Antiquities and one from the Roberts College, an American higher education institution. It is too early as yet to prepare a general report, especially as the most important reply — that from the university of *Constantinople* — has not yet been received.

The library of the *Danzig* Polytechnic Institute announces that it is prepared to act as an intermediary between the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and the scientific institutions of the Free City. It has sent to the Committee a list of foreign books which it needs and adds a list of works which it could offer in exchange ; several questionnaires have been sent to it with a request to forward them to the various *Danzig* institutions and to prepare a general report on intellectual life in *Danzig*.

III.

CONCLUSIONS.

The results set forth above, interesting and encouraging as they are, nevertheless afford clear evidence of the fact that the enquiry in Central European and oriental countries is far from complete. The reasons for this are obvious : in most cases the questionnaires were not sent out until February last and all the replies could not be expected before July. Indeed, the very fact that the questionnaires are drawn up with great detail and elaboration means that considerable time and effort must be devoted to them by the institutions and persons who have been consulted. It must further be remembered that the authors of the replies are all very busy men, that in many cases they are working under very unfavourable conditions, and that they receive no material in return for the services which they render the Committee. Then, again, postal transport is sometimes by no means rapid, and in many cases the secretary of the Committee has been informed that the long summer vacation was being utilised in order to draft a complete reply.

The inevitable conclusion is, therefore, that the enquiry must still be pursued in all these countries. In order to enable it to be completed within reasonable time it would perhaps be desirable to communicate again with all who have not yet replied to the questionnaires. These communications could best be sent through the national committees of the countries concerned and a time limit of two or three months might be fixed for the sending of the replies. Even after this period it would, of course, be interesting to follow the subsequent development of intellectual life in these countries ; for this purpose it would perhaps be sufficient to request the national committees which have been formed in almost all the countries concerned to send periodical reports indicating all the essential changes which have taken place in the interval.

To pass from these distant prospects of the future to the practical possibilities of the present, the Committee might perhaps consider how far the results of the enquiry in these countries could be published either at once or in the near future.

(a) Publications relating to Bulgaria, Hungary and Czechoslovakia could be taken in hand at once.

The reply of the Bulgarian Government could be published.

As regards Hungary, the part of the final report which deals with general observations and higher educational establishments might be put into final form in a very short time, the method followed being that indicated above in the paragraph referring to Hungary.

Of the reports prepared on intellectual life in Czechoslovakia, those on " the book as an instrument of work and education " and on higher education might be published at once. The part of the latter report which deals with special higher educational establishments might be combined with the report on the technical sciences.

(b) Several reports will shortly reach the Secretariat of the Committee in a form ready for publication. These are the general reports on Albania, Greece and Lithuania and the report on Polish learned societies. The Committee could accordingly decide to have them printed as soon as they arrive, as they will all have been drafted by fully qualified persons.

(c) As regards the other countries, I think that several publications could be undertaken before the autumn, or at any rate before the end of the year. It is also hoped that the secretariat of the Committee will soon have received enough replies to enable it to draw up a general report on Estonia, a report on the Finnish learned societies (in particular, philological and historical societies) and a report on Roumanian learned societies.

The programme of publications dealing with the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes will be based on the replies, already referred to, which are expected from Belgrade and Zagreb. A further effort will also be made to prosecute the enquiry in Latvia.

Annex 2.

REPORT SUBMITTED BY THE SECRETARIAT ON THE ASSISTANCE TO BE RENDERED TO COUNTRIES WHERE THE CONTINUANCE OF INTELLECTUAL LIFE IS PARTICULARLY ENDANGERED.

In the report on the work of its first session, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation emphasised that it considered that its first duty was "to draw the attention of the Council, and also of the whole of the League to the conditions which govern intellectual life throughout a part of Europe". It gave "special consideration to those nations — including some of recent origin — which extend from the Baltic to the Black Sea and the Ægean Sea and the organs of whose intellectual life have suffered injury in varying degrees".

In the resolutions adopted by the Third Assembly on September 28th, 1922, the Assembly "noted with much interest the detailed investigations carried out by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation regarding the conditions of intellectual life" in those countries, and invited "the Council to stimulate an intellectual co-operation based upon international solidarity in order to procure scientific books and documents for the universities and schools of those countries which, as a result of war, have been deprived of them, and which have not sufficient resources to acquire them".

At its meeting on October 4th, 1922, the Council considered how these resolutions could be carried out. Among the practical suggestions submitted by the Committee, the Council attached particular importance to the proposal advocating the selection in the various countries concerned, of local institutions which might serve as intermediaries between the Committee and the intellectual workers of that country. This idea was developed by Mme. Curie in the conclusions of her report on the conditions of intellectual life in Poland.

The Council gave its approval, in principle, to this suggestion and invited the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation "to make more detailed proposals concerning the local institutions to be chosen in various countries to inform the Committee of the more urgent needs of scholars and scientific institutions, more especially as regards the exchange of books and instruments of research".

In order to be in a position to submit to the Council as soon as possible more detailed proposals on this question, the Secretary of the Committee unofficially approached the institutions best adapted for the purpose in the countries to which the report of the Committee had drawn particular attention, in order to enquire whether the carrying out of this scheme seemed to them practicable and desirable, in so far as their country was concerned, and whether they were prepared to undertake the duties outlined in the Council's resolution.

The memorandum submitted by the Secretary-General to the Council at its seventeenth session showed that the great majority of these institutions had given a favourable reply. At its meeting on January 30th, 1923, the Council approved the Committee's scheme, congratulated it on the results obtained, and invited it to approach all these institutions officially.

The Secretary of the Committee accordingly sent them official invitations requesting them :

(1) To communicate to the Secretariat of the Committee the most urgent needs of the institutions and intellectual workers of their country ;

(2) To inform the Committee what books or what facilities for research could be offered in exchange ;

(3) To assist the Committee in its enquiry on the conditions of intellectual work ;

(4) If necessary, to invite other important institutions in their country to co-operate in this undertaking.

In reply to this appeal nearly all the institutions which had been approached established, on their own initiative, national committees on intellectual co-operation, which are of course very variously constituted (see list annexed to this report), but which represent the most authoritative organisations of each country. These committees have already rendered signal services to the International Committee in connection with its enquiry : they have for instance forwarded numerous questionnaires to the institutions in their country, have urged them to reply as soon as possible, and have supplemented the lists of such institutions which had been drawn up by the Secretariat. All these committees propose to communicate before long to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation the first requests formulated by their country.

From the outset, the Secretariat of the Committee endeavoured to find out to whom these requests should be forwarded, and what steps should be taken in order to obtain the most satisfactory results.

It got into touch with several important institutions in the great western countries which make it their object to promote intellectual relations with other countries, such as, for instance, the "Universities Library for Central Europe" of London, the "Junta para ampliacion de Estudios", of Madrid, the "Institute of International Education" of New-York, the European

Headquarters of the Carnegie Endowment, and the " Office de Renseignements Scientifiques " of the Sorbonne in Paris, the " Istituto inter-universitario italiano " in Rome, etc.

Sure of the friendly co-operation of such institutions, the Secretariat forwarded to them several requests for books which it had received in the course of the last month from Austria, Hungary, Poland and the Free City of Danzig.

Other requests were forwarded direct to the institution which edits the publications applied for, and to several members of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation personally. As a result, the Budapest Observatory, obtained the publication of the Paris Observatory, and the Polish Academy received instructions from England and Belgium with regard to the publication of historical texts and also numerous publications from Swiss historical societies.

The Secretariat also found that the forwarding of books to distant countries was comparatively easy to carry out through the International Exchange Service, or through the diplomatic couriers of the countries concerned.

It is easy to foresee, however, that in the near future, owing to the final establishment of a dozen national committees, the requests forwarded to Geneva will become so numerous and extensive as to make it necessary to organise their transmission on a more systematic basis in order to ensure satisfactory result :

The experience gained in the course of our preparatory work has led us to certain definite conclusions :

(1) It would appear essential that organisations corresponding to the national committees set up in certain countries, and invited to communicate their needs to the International Committee, should be established in those countries which would be most likely to satisfy these needs. Here again it would not be necessary to create new organisations, but merely to co-ordinate institutions which already exist and which would, according to the conditions peculiar to each country, be the best adapted to afford intellectual assistance to less favoured countries. Since nearly all the countries whose assistance would be particularly desirable are represented on the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, the members of that Committee might easily indicate the best method of setting up such organisations in their respective countries, and perhaps also exert their influence for the establishment of these organisations.

(2) It would appear equally necessary to establish communication between the national committees of all countries in order to co-ordinate their methods. This might be more easily achieved if the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would consider the possibility of giving to the representatives of these national committees an opportunity of meeting and of exchanging their views. The reports of these committees submitted to such a conference, or communicated to the Secretariat of the League of Nations and would supplement the general enquiry on the conditions of intellectual life.

(3) Once relations have been established between the national committees, requests for publications (books or periodicals) might be forwarded direct — instead of through Geneva — to the national committee of the country where the publications applied for by another country have appeared. The most rapid means of conveying information on everything which has been published in each country would be the regular exchange of all bibliographic publications, a list of which would be published in the " Index Bibliographicus " prepared by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography.

(4) It is probable that another class of requests will be submitted, connected with university life ; the exchange of professors and students ; and journeys of all kinds for purposes of study. Often such requests will not be directed to any particular university, or even to any specified country, and in such cases the Central Information Bureau, the establishment of which was recommended by the Universities Sub-Committee, might be used as an intermediary.

APPENDIX.

NATIONAL COMMITTEES AND INSTITUTIONS CO-OPERATING WITH THE COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION IN THE COUNTRIES WHERE THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL LIFE ARE PARTICULARLY UNFAVOURABLE.

(1) *Albania.*

Dr. B. Blinishti, Director of the Albanian Permanent Secretariat accredited to the League of Nations, ensures regular communication with the Popular Library recently established at Tirana, which may be considered the centre of the intellectual life of that country, and which applies for scientific and literary works in French, English and German.

(2) *Austria.*

On the initiative of Professor A. Dopsch, the Austrian correspondent of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, a National Committee was formed under his chairmanship ; it is composed of representatives of the Academy of Sciences (Prof. Wettstein), the Austrian

League of Nations Union (Prof. Walker), the Federation of Intellectual Workers (Prof. Sperl), the Vienna University (Prof. Durig), the Technical College (Prof. Artmann), the Academy of Fine Arts (Prof. Schmutzer), the Academy of Music (Director Marx), the National Library, which is the organ for the interchange of publications (Director Bick), the large museums and collections (Dr. Löhr), and the School of Industrial Art (Director Roller).

This committee held its first meeting on April 28th, 1923, and communicated to the Secretariat the resolutions adopted.

(3) *Bulgaria.*

The University of Sofia established in March 1923 a National Committee under the chairmanship of M. Caraoglanoff, Rector of the University. It is composed of representatives of the Senate of the University and of the Bulgarian Academy of Sciences.

It will shortly communicate the needs of Bulgaria for books and scientific instruments and for interchanges of professors and students.

(4) *Esthonia.*

In a letter from its Rector, Professor Koppel, dated December 12th, 1922, the University of Dorpat declared its readiness to undertake, on behalf of Esthonia, the duties outlined in the resolutions of the Council of the League of Nations.

(5) *Finland.*

On the initiative of M. Tigerstedt, Permanent Secretary to the Society of Sciences in Finland, a "Delegation" (National Committee) was set up in April 1923, composed of representatives of the Society of Sciences (Professors U. L. Lindelöf, C. Tigerstedt and A. Wallensköld of the University of Helsingfors) and of the Finnish Academy of Sciences at Helsingfors.

(6) *Greece.*

At the suggestion of Professor A. Andreades, the Rector of Athens University, formed in April 1923, a permanent committee, composed of Professors S. Menardos, J. Remoundos, and Chr. Tsoundas for the purpose of collaborating with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. It has got into touch with all the institutions concerned in Greece.

(7) *Hungary.*

Thanks to the efforts of M. E. de Balogh, a former Minister and Secretary-General to the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, a national committee was set up on December 18th, 1922, under the chairmanship of M. A. de Berzeviczy, former Minister, President of the Academy, and with M. de Balogh as "Rapporteur".

It is composed of eleven members of the Academy, including the Librarian, and of representatives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Education, the Committee for the Promotion of the Scientific Work of Hungarian Universities (Professor E. de Grósz), the Hungarian League of Nations Union and the Inspector-General of Museums and Libraries.

On February 10th, 1923, the Academy submitted to the Committee for intellectual Co-operation definite suggestions as the best method of interchanging publications, professors and students with Hungary. For this purpose, it is in communication with all the Universities in the country.

(8) *Latvia.*

The Committee is negotiating with the University of Riga.

(9) *Lithuania.*

The University of Kovno entered into communication with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation on November 7th, 1922, through its Rector, M. Šimkus, and a National Committee was set up in May 1922 composed of the representatives of six of the faculties of the University, i.e. Professors V. Čepinskis (Science), Chairman of the Committee, E. Balogh (Law), Secretary of the Committee, S. Šalkauskas (Theology), A. Jurgeliunas (Medicine), M. Biržiška (Art and Letters), and Vasiliauskas (Technical Sciences).

(10) *Poland.*

In accordance with Mme. Curie's proposal, the Mianowski Foundation (for the promotion of scientific research) at Warsaw (Professor K. Lutostanski, Président) serves as a link between Poland and the Committee; all the competent institutions in that country are represented on the Scientific Board of the Foundation. In January 1923, its Committee set up a "League of Nations Committee" to deal with questions of intellectual co-operation, and composed of Professors Fr. Czubalski, L. Szperl and J. Ujejski. It works in close collaboration, as regards these questions, with the Polish Academy of Science and Letters and also with a special Committee set up by the Union of Polish Scientific Societies and the Society of Sciences and Letters of Lwow (Lemberg), Professor W. Abraham (President).

(11) *Roumania.*

The Roumanian Academy set up a national committee, including representatives of the principal scientific institutions, for the purpose of permanently keeping in touch with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

On December 8th, 1922, the Secretary-General of the Academy, M. J. L. Negruzzi, forwarded to the Secretariat of the League of Nations suggestions as to the best means of affording assistance to the intellectual life of Roumania.

(12) *Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.*

Thanks to the efforts of Professor J. Cvijić, President of the Serbian Royal Academy, in March 1923 the Government set up a National Committee under the chairmanship of Professor N. Vulić, representative of the Academy. One of the members of that Committee, M. R. Avramovitch, Under-Secretary of State, is a Delegate to the League of Nations, and it was on his motion that the Third Assembly adopted the resolution regarding intellectual co-operation between the various countries.

In two letters, dated January 10th and May 2nd 1923, respectively, M. Cvijić communicated to the Committee the most urgent needs of the Serbian scientific institutions.

(13) *Czechoslovakia.*

At the suggestion of Professor F. Susta, former Minister of Education, of Professor V. Tille, former Dean of the Faculty of Letters at Prague, and of M. F. Spisek, Councillor at the Ministry of Education, the Czech Academy of Sciences has set up a National Committee to collaborate with the Committee for Intellectual Co-operation. Professor Zubaty, President of the Academy, and former Rector of Charles University, is its Chairman. It is composed of 16 members, of whom eight are representatives of the Academy, four of the Czech Society of Sciences and four of the Masaryk Academy of Labour, at Prague, with an executive Committee composed of four members: Professors Zubaty, Basta, Posejpal and Susva. The latter is in charge of the administration of current business and has nominated Dr. J. Vana as Permanent Secretary.

Annex 3.

REPLIES OF THE GOVERNMENTS TO THE INVITATION OF THE COUNCIL TO
ADHERE TO THE CONVENTIONS OF 1886 REGARDING THE INTERNATIONAL
EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS.

Up to the present, fifteen Governments have replied to the invitation issued by the Council of the League of Nations.

The Hungarian Government and the Government of the Republic of San Domingo announced that they ratified the two Conventions: their International Exchange Services are already in operation.

Roumania has announced her intention of adhering to both Conventions; she has also created a National Service of Exchanges which has entered upon its duties.

Germany, Finland, Japan and Lithuania have announced that they are examining with interest the question raised by the Council.

The British Government replied that it could not give its adhesion to the Conventions as they now stand. It would, however, be prepared to consider modified arrangements for the exchange of publications selected from lists drawn up by the adhering States within a maximum purchase price of £50. The British Government also points out that a mere invitation to adhere to the Conventions in force does not seem entirely to cover the recommendations contained in the Report of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which had pointed out the necessity of revising the Conventions of Brussels.

South Africa and the Netherlands are not prepared to give their official adhesion to the Conventions of 1886, but will continue to participate unofficially in the exchanges of publications which, in the case of the Netherlands, are effected through the International Exchange Bureau at Delft.

The Government of India would consider it very desirable to adhere to the Conventions, but, being at present prevented from doing so for financial reasons, will reconsider the matter again.

Bulgaria, Canada, Monaco and Norway are not prepared to adhere to the Conventions of 1886. Bulgaria is very desirous of doing so, but is prevented by her financial situation; Norway also adduces financial reasons, but at the same time observes that she considers the utility of these Conventions not sufficiently wide.

Annex 4.

REPORT ON AN INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING FOR THE "DISCOVERY OF ARCHÆOLOGICAL MONUMENTS AND THE PUBLICATION OF THE RESULTS", SUBMITTED TO THE COMMITTEE BY SENATOR F. RUFFINI.

Regarding M. Bergson's proposal for an international understanding for the purpose of :

- (1) Drawing up, as far as possible, a list of such archæological treasures as have not yet been brought to light ;
- (2) Preparing a general plan of research ;
- (3) Determining regulations as to the method of carrying out researches ;
- (4) Establishing international regulations concerning the preservation and alienation of archæological monuments ;

The first two questions are of a purely scientific-technical character. The two latter, on the other hand, are not only of a technical and scientific character, but are also of the highest political-juridical importance.

It is desirable to deal with these two groups of questions separately.

I.

In view of the purely scientific-technical character of these questions, and the fact that I do not claim to possess the necessary qualifications for dealing with the subject, I have thought it desirable, in the first place, to draw up a proposal which would enable an opinion to be obtained from persons qualified to speak on so difficult a question, and which would at the same time provide an opportunity of giving practical effect to that desire for intellectual co-operation between nations which constitutes the great ideal of our Committee.

During the third session of the International Academic Union, which met at Brussels between May 25th and 27th, 1922, the question of the regulations governing archæological research was fully discussed by a special committee consisting of Sir Frederick Kenyon, Mgr. Bulic, Mr. Stuart Jones, Mr. Wicher, Mr. Bidez, M. de Sanctis, M. Salverda de Grave, M. Cavvadias, M. Balanos, M. Kyparissis, M. Imbart de la Tour, and M. Homolle. The Committee, it is true, dealt only with archæological regulations in mandated countries, or countries occupying a similar position, but the undoubted qualifications of the persons mentioned above obviously provide the highest guarantees for an exhaustive reply to any question regarding other sides of archæological research. I therefore proposed at the outset that the two questions to which I have referred above should be submitted to the International Academic Union, and that the latter should be asked to express its opinion, and supply such information as it might consider most useful on the subject.

It would clearly be a case of one of those *definite problems of a scientific character*, in connection with which our Committee has expressed its wish to co-operate, whenever possible with other international scientific organisations, including in particular the International Academic Union.

For my own part, I cannot but think that if we are to draw up a list of such archæological treasures as have not yet been brought to light, we shall have to rely to a very considerable extent on conjecture or, I might even say, on special powers of divination ; in any case, it will be necessary to undertake, as a preliminary step to the work proposed, the preparation of as complete and accurate a list as possible of these archæological treasures which have already been discovered, and of those which — although no doubt is entertained as to their existence — have so far been sought in vain. Only after that preliminary work has been completed shall we be in a position to form an idea of the most serious gaps in the knowledge at present in our possession, gaps which, consequently, it would be both expedient and highly desirable to fill.

In Italy, the Ministry of Education has undertaken to publish a list of existing monuments; 17 volumes have already been issued which deal with the following provinces : Alessandria, Turin, Novara, Coni, Bergamo, Brescia, Rovigo, Modena, Bologna, Pisa, Arezzo, Chieti, Caserta, Catania, Syracuse, Cagliari, Sassari and the countries administered by Italy : Tripolitana, Eritrea, Somaliland and the Southern Sporades. Work is also being carried on with a view to preparing a catalogue of works of art and two volumes have already been published — on Aosta and Pisa.

It would be of the greatest interest to do everything possible by means of bibliographical bulletins and lists, which should be as complete as possible, to furnish a knowledge of the literature produced on this subject, a result which can only be obtained with the active and wholehearted support of all countries in which our studies are pursued. An understanding with this object in view between the countries referred to would enable the work to be methodically organised and distributed on logical lines, and would prove of high value. The International Academic Union has already provided us with striking examples of undertakings of this nature, among which may be mentioned the publication of the *Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum*, the compilation of a *Corpus Vasorum*, and finally, the new edition of *Du Cange's Dictionary*.

The mapping-out of a general plan of research work, however, presents considerable difficulties ; doubts may even be raised at the very outset as to whether scholarship has reached a sufficient degree of development to allow an undertaking of this nature to be begun.

For the moment it might perhaps be enough to call attention to the research work which would prove of the greatest interest and which might be undertaken at the present date with the greatest advantage.

But even regarding the matter from that point of view, I feel that the best course to pursue would be to invite the Brussels Academic Union to take steps to have a memorandum prepared by its competent committees, which would supply all the guidance and contain all the instructions and proposals which might appear to be best adapted to the purpose.

II.

We shall now consider questions 3 and 4 under their two distinct aspects, and we shall begin with their scientific-technical side.

A body of regulations dealing with the scientific method which should be employed in research work ought obviously to begin by taking into account the great diversity existing both in the districts where such research work is being pushed forward and the object for which such work is being undertaken. Speaking generally, we are justified in stating that a sound scholarly and accurate method of conducting research work has so far been followed in almost all civilised countries ; but considerable advantage would certainly be derived if a body of competent persons representing the various regions, and also possessing specialised knowledge of the object of the research, could bring together these various methods and compare and co-ordinate them in a document which would show the manner in which a steady improvement in the method of carrying on research could be ensured.

Looking at the matter from the scientific point of view, the problem of the methods of preserving, and the power of legally transferring, archæological monuments may be stated briefly as follows : Is it desirable to leave monuments on the actual spot on which they are discovered, or is it better that they should be removed and placed in museums ? If the archæological monument is preserved in the surroundings in which it has been brought to light, the surroundings and the monument will obviously throw light on each other and each will heighten the value of the other—a circumstance which cannot but assist the work of scientific reconstitution. It is equally obvious that if the monument is removed to a place where other similar monuments may be compared with it, the juxtaposition of these monuments will lead to fuller knowledge and will bring out certain points which otherwise would have remained obscure.

In deciding which of the two systems ought to be adopted, *i.e.*, whether a monument should be retained on the spot where it was discovered or whether it ought to be removed and placed in a special museum, regard should be had to considerations relating to the surroundings of the place where the monument was brought to light. In countries where intelligent and strict supervision over works of art and antiquities is, or can be, exercised, the first system would, as a rule, appear to be preferable.

In regard to this matter I would venture to point out that the long period during which all objects discovered during excavation work carried out in the town of Pompeii were removed to the National Museum at Naples has been succeeded by a period during which articles discovered have, as far as possible, been preserved on the spot — one may even say on the very site and in the very position — in which they were found. Any person who will compare the results of excavation work formerly carried on in certain parts of the buried city with the results of similar work as carried out recently cannot fail to be impressed by the great power of suggestion and the remarkable and inspiring appeal which the new method makes to the imagination.

There are countries, however, in which antiquities receive no protection whatever from the local authorities and in which, as a result, the continued presence of such antiquities on the actual site where they were brought to light would be the surest and speediest method of exposing them to inevitable pillage or even to destruction. In the case of such countries, accordingly, the removal of objects which are brought to light and their protection in special museums would appear to be by far the best method and one which should be adopted in spite of any scientific consideration or in spite of the fact that their suggestive power in calling up the past, or their poetical appeal, might be lost.

In the case of countries, as, for example, Egypt, in which an almost infinite number of antiquities are continually being discovered in uniform series, a compromise between the above two methods might perhaps be found. In the case of such countries, objects, when discovered, might be divided up among the local collections and even among local museums and the museums in these countries which had contributed to the work of research either by giving scientific assistance or by supplying funds.

But no matter which of these solutions finds the more general acceptance, there is one thing which should be most strenuously opposed : the clandestine removal of art treasures and antiquities. From every point of view, such removals are highly prejudicial, but they are especially so from the point of view of scientific, orderly, methodical and, consequently, really valuable research work. An understanding between countries — both countries which are Members of the League of Nations and others such as the United States of America — would be most desirable in this respect. And an example of an undertaking of this character might be found in the proposed convention between Italy and the Czechoslovak Republic.

III.

The consideration of questions 3 and 4 from the legal-political point of view reveals a distinction between countries which, in consequence of the stage of civilisation which they have reached and their form of government, provide, as regards artistic treasures and archaeological monuments, the fullest guarantees for the treatment of such objects in a manner which meets all the requirements of science and, on the other hand, countries in which such a guarantee can only be partially furnished or is totally lacking.

There is less difficulty in arriving at a decision as regards the second case, for a distinction can be drawn between countries of a high standard of culture which are equally interested in archaeological research work and countries in which the interest in archaeological questions may be traced to a great variety of reasons, among which strictly scientific considerations certainly do not hold the most important place.

Complete unity of effort can accordingly only be established between countries in the first group which also possess considerable political power and are consequently in a position to prepare and enforce jointly a body of regulations corresponding to the highest intellectual needs of civilisation.

The difficulty of taking a decision is considerably reduced by another consideration to which we have already referred : the International Academic Union has discussed, through the medium of a committee consisting of persons of high competence, this very question of the rules which ought to govern archaeological investigation in mandated countries or in countries occupying a similar position. For that reason I feel that I cannot do better than reproduce *in extenso* the resolution adopted by that committee after full discussion — resolutions which, I venture to think, contain principles which ought to be accepted.

The following are the resolutions referred to :

I. It is desirable that an understanding should be established regarding the principles governing the superintendence of antiquities in mandated countries or countries under a similar system of government.

II. The object of the superintendence of antiquities should be threefold :

(1) To preserve on the spot any ancient buildings or monuments from deterioration, making allowance solely for the proved necessities of modern life ;

(2) As regards movable objects, found above or below the surface, to constitute complete representative series of these objects in their countries of origin ;

(3) To encourage studies and further archaeological knowledge by granting facilities for research to scholars from other countries.

III. Objects 1 and 2 will be attained : (1) by effectively supervising and protecting monuments existing *in situ*, both in respect of natives, foreigners inhabiting the country and travellers ; (2) by establishing a central museum or local museum in which all movable antiquities will be collected and stored, grouped in series representing the history and civilisation of the country.

IV. It would seem that, in order to induce natives and other inhabitants to show respect for monuments and to give information with regard to and to preserve movable antiquities, whether already discovered or yet to be discovered, a benevolent policy of education and encouragement would be preferable to a rigorous system of intimidation. They should be taught to recognise antiquities and to appreciate the importance of such objects for the honour and profit of their country ; they should be shown the advantages of honest information by the award of prizes or of fair compensation.

V. Any person discovering an antiquity must notify the fact as promptly as possible to the Archaeological Service or to the nearest authorities. Subject to this reservation, and upon condition of taking the requisite precautions for preserving it, the finder might be authorised to keep the antiquity.

VI. The legal owner of an antiquity shall have the right to sell it or alienate it, but solely subject to the forms specified in the law on antiquities and with the consent of the Archaeological Service.

VII. No antiquity may be taken away without express authorisation from the Archaeological Service.

VIII. In case of sale, either in the country itself or abroad, the superintendence of antiquities shall reserve to itself the right of pre-emption, in conformity with the procedure laid down for the fixing of prices by the law on antiquities.

IX. With a view to developing (object No. 3) a scientific knowledge of antiquities, it is desirable that explorations and excavations should be encouraged by a liberal and fair regime subject to guarantees ensuring the adoption of the most efficient method possible.

X. No excavations may be undertaken without due permission from the authorities, who must obtain an opinion from the Archaeological Service.

XI. Permission can only be granted to recognised learned institutions or to persons certified as duly qualified by institutions of this nature.

XII. Upon the conclusion of excavations, all objects discovered, without exception, must be forwarded to the Archaeological Service to any locality named by it.

Movable objects of supreme historical or artistic importance should be collected under the supervision of the Archaeological Service in a central or local museum for the purpose

of protecting them and facilitating their study, and should be so arranged as to represent the civilisation of the country as fully as possible.

After the museum has received its selection, the Archæological Service will be entitled to grant the excavator part of the discoveries made by him, in recognition of his generosity towards the country and his devotion to archæology and with a view to promoting archæological knowledge abroad by means of the distribution of originals. The excavator's share of the discoveries should consist principally of duplicates or objects which may be regarded as duplicates. It will vary according to place and circumstance and may amount to as much as one half of the discoveries if the quantity of archæological material permits or in cases in which this course may be recommended owing to the difficulties of preservations on the spot or in the general interests of archæology. In respect of these same interests, every endeavour will be made to ensure that the part made over to the excavator will also, so far as possible, be representative of the civilisation of the country to which he has devoted his money and his labour.

XIII. Authorisation to excavate will entail an obligation on the part of the learned institution or qualified person holding such authorisation to publish within a reasonable space of time a report, with adequate details, on the progress of the work and the nature, date and place of the principal discoveries. If necessary, the final place of destination of the discoveries, whether in the country or outside, should also be indicated.

XIV. Any learned institution and any duly qualified and certified person may compete for authorisation to excavate, whether they are nationals of the mandatory Power or not.

Archæological relations as between mandatory Powers will be governed by the system of reciprocity within the limits defined by the present Convention.

IV.

On the other hand — as may easily be understood — the question is an extremely difficult and intricate one when the researches to be undertaken are to be carried out in a State which has arrived at a higher degree of civilisation and in which archæological research is understood, conducted and appreciated in a manner which fulfils all the requirements of science ; this is obviously the crux of the question.

Let us first consider the system introduced in the two countries whose territories present much more extensive possibilities of research than those of other countries : namely, Greece and Italy. It is obviously correct to say that these countries cannot be placed on a footing of pure and simple reciprocity with regard to other countries which do not offer any possibilities for archæological research or which offer them only to a considerably smaller degree. This accounts for the necessity which has been felt of establishing a system of protection and restriction in the two countries mentioned above.

The system instituted in Greece under the Law of June 19th, 1899, regarding the Island of Crete, and extended to include the whole of Greece on July 24th, 1899, is the more severe of the two. Under these laws, all antiquities are decreed to be the patrimony of the State, so that the right of research and preservation belongs exclusively to the Government. Article 1 of the Greek Law is couched in the following terms :

“ All antiquities, whether movable or otherwise, discovered in Greece in any of the national possessions, in the rivers, ports or on the floor of the sea, in communal, monastic and private properties, even from the earliest times, shall be the property of the State. ”

A more liberal attitude has been adopted in Italy. The principle that antiquities form part of the public estate was not embodied in the terms of the Italian Law of June 20th, 1909. This law respects the rights of ownership of persons who are owners of the soil in which excavations are made or in which archæological monuments are discovered.

In the public interest and in the interest of science, however, it laid down certain restrictions to the enjoyment of this right of ownership. These restrictions consist mainly of the right which the State has appropriated to itself of undertaking archæological research in any locality situated within its territory and of passing decrees for expropriations on the ground of public utility, subject to payment of fair compensation to the proprietor.

The Government may, however, grant licences to institutions and even to private persons to undertake archæological research on condition that the latter submit to the supervision of officials of the public services and observe all regulations imposed upon them by the latter in the interests of science.

Half the objects or compensation equivalent to half their value, as the Ministry of Public Education may think fit, is granted to the institutions or private persons discovering them. The appropriations by the State of half the objects discovered, or even of all such objects, subject, however, to repayment of half their value, is justified not merely from the higher point of view of public utility and education but also by the imperfectly defined legal nature of objects discovered by excavation which cannot strictly be regarded as articles belonging to the soil nor as *treasure-trove*. The intrinsic meaning of the principle which was generally recognised formerly to the effect that “ Qui dominus est soli, dominus est coeli inferorum ” and which was contained in the articles of certain civil codes (e.g. Article 440 of the Italian Civil Code) has formed the subject of discussions of too violent a nature to make it possible to assign without reservation the ownership of archæological treasure to the owner of the soil. Archæological treasure as the product of intellectual work and of the culture of the whole nation cannot be treated as purely analogous to mineral ore or a sum of money buried by some

individual in former days. It is obvious that the right to the ownership of national riches of this kind is a collective right and hence that it must be regarded as a fair and just division if the owner and the State each take half.

It should be noted that the Italian Law grants concessions upon the same terms not only to *national* institutions and private individuals, but also to *foreign* institutions and individuals. Article 19 of the Law states : “ The Government shall have the same powers (*i.e.* of appropriating half the objects discovered or all such objects, subject, however, to repayment of half their value) both in the case of objects discovered as the result of excavations carried out by foreign institutions or nationals holding licences and in the case of objects discovered by the latter by chance ; and although the Government may, under the terms of the preceding articles, consent to allow the said foreign nationals or institutions to retain part of the objects discovered, these objects may not be exported from the territory of the State but must be kept in Italy under conditions which will ensure their being available in that country for purposes of national culture. The objects referred to are those possessing the characteristics specified in the first paragraph of Article 8 ”. The first paragraph of Article 8 states : “ It is forbidden to export outside the kingdom objects of historical, archaeological or artistic interest the exportation of which would constitute a serious loss to history, archaeology or art ”.

To sum up, the Italian Government has reserved to itself the right to grant or refuse authorisation to undertake excavations and research. The Italian Government can assign to itself such authorisation with regard to any part of the territory of the State, subject to payment of compensation. The Government may grant, both to Italian and foreign institutions and to individuals, both of Italian or foreign nationality, authorisation to undertake excavation and researches. The half of any objects brought to the surface or discovered may also be surrendered to institutions or individuals, whether of Italian or foreign nationality. Objects thus surrendered may be exported abroad provided that their exportation does not constitute a loss of the type specified in the first paragraph of Article 8. In the case of such loss being proved, the objects, although the property of national or foreign institutions or individuals, must remain within the territory of the State.

It is obvious that the latter clause (which, considered literally, would appear to place foreigners on exactly the same footing as Italian subjects) constitutes a restriction *de facto* in regard to foreigners which is of considerable importance. The essential difficulty in all controversy on the subject may, as a matter of fact, be reduced to this latter point. Throughout the discussions at Brussels during the meeting of the Academic Union, the representatives of these States, which are not themselves endowed with archaeological treasure, laid great stress on their countries' desire to acquire a larger and more definite proportion of the yield of discoveries and excavations. In support of their argument they drew attention to the “ benevolent equity of a concession of this nature and especially to the obvious scientific advantages to be derived from thus placing within the reach of masters and workers in the most civilised countries of the two hemispheres types of monuments and new documents ”.

I do not in any way deny the legitimacy of a desire of this kind. However, I would venture to point out that there are few matters in which national sentiment can be more susceptible, suspicious and even intractable than this. It is important, accordingly, to spare national sentiment in any way possible.

The most certain means of obtaining the widest concessions in this direction is that of refraining from making an isolated representation, that is to say, of each country making a separate request, to the State where the antiquities and archaeological treasure are deposited. Countries which are the custodians of archaeological treasure will only decide to grant wider concessions if there is close collaboration in regard to work and researches between all countries adhering to the League of Nations, and if they are shown the successful results of such collaboration. In other words, the only method of inducing countries which fate has favoured in this regard to contribute to the collective work of all nations larger quantities of scientific material than they have granted hitherto is to give them a guarantee of the closest possible measure of international solidarity in all spheres of culture.

V.

I therefore feel it to be my duty to submit the following three resolutions to the Committee :

(I) That technical and scientific questions relating to archaeological research, the preservation of objects and the publication of the results of research be submitted to the *International Academic Union*.

(II) That the resolution adopted by that Union with regard to the archaeological regime to be applied in mandated territories or territories assimilated thereto be approved and forwarded to the *Mandates Commission* of the League of Nations.

(III) That, as regards international regulations concerning the preservation and alienation of archaeological monuments, a request be addressed to the *Italian Government* to take the initiative in the matter and to prepare the draft of an agreement.

Annex 5.

UNIVERSITY INFORMATION BUREAU.

At the suggestion of the University Sub-Committee, the Committee on Intellectual Cooperation proposes the formation of a Universities Information Bureau. This Bureau might be attached to the Secretariat, which carries out the secretarial work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

The object, programme, method of work and budget of the Bureau might be determined in the following manner :

(1) The object of the Bureau will be to collect all documents concerning university life in all countries, to classify and study them and to draw any useful information from them.

It will mainly deal with international relations between the universities and will make every endeavour possible to facilitate such relations.

(2) The Bureau shall collect documents and distribute information in accordance with the programme framed below :

I. *University Organisation.*

- (1) Relations between the universities and the State.
- (2) Internal organisation (governing body, divisions, institutes, ecclesiastical colleges).
- (3) Relations between the various universities in the same country.
- (4) National university information offices or similar national institutions.

II. *Organisation of Studies.*

- (1) System and periods of study.
- (2) Division of studies.
- (3) Matriculation.
- (4) Examinations and degrees.

III. *Teaching Staff.*

- (1) Appointment; duration of appointment.
- (2) Remuneration.
- (3) Unattached professors and lecturers (*privat-docents*).
- (4) Assistants and readers.
- (5) Admission of foreigners to the teaching staff.

IV. *Students.*

- (1) Administrative relations between the universities and the students; legal status of students; discipline.
- (2) Organisation of students.
- (3) Conditions of life (housing, feeding, requisites for study, grants in aid, scholarships, etc.)

V. *Social Importance of the Universities.*

- (1) Recruitment of teaching staff.
- (2) Social position of professors.
- (3) Social position of ex-students (doctors, lawyers, etc.)
- (4) Relations with the public (academic associations, university extension courses, public lectures and courses).
- (5) Scientific associations.

VI. *International Relations.*

- (1) Equivalent studies and examinations.
- (2) International agreements.
- (3) Inter-university congresses.
- (4) Scientific congresses.
- (5) Students' congresses.
- (6) Interchange of professors.
- (7) Interchange of students.
- (8) Interchange of publications.
- (9) Exchanges between libraries.
- (10) Vacation courses.

(3) The Bureau will keep constantly in touch with the national bureaux or other similar institutions.

In countries where there is no national inter-university bureau, the Bureau will endeavour to obtain the formation of one and meanwhile will appoint correspondents.

The Bureau will send information in the first place to the official administrative bodies of higher education in the various States, to the national bureaux and finally to the universities themselves, whether State-controlled or otherwise.

It will be authorised to enter into relations with private associations and with individual persons.

It will publish a bulletin.

(4) The Bureau will be directed by the Secretary of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. He will be assisted by a temporary official for work of an administrative nature and by a stenographer. Any supplementary expenditure required for the formation of the official bureau would accordingly not exceed 30,700 francs:

A Member of Section, Class B.	13,700	} 30,700 francs.
A shorthand-typist	7,000	
Correspondence, publications, experts, visits to national bureaux	10,000	

Annex 6.

A PROPOSAL FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF AN INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY UNDER THE AUSPICES OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

OBSERVATIONS BY PROFESSOR BANNERJEA.

The League of Nations is destined to become, we hope, a real force in international relationships — an instrument of justice and world-peace. Whatever justification its critics may claim for condemnation directed against certain decisions and mandates, they must concede that the real League is in the making, that the present League has positive achievements to its credit and that it is a very young institution.

But political relationships, if they are to be normal and sound, must be built up on the foundations of effective intellectual co-operation. In order that it may be a stabilising and directive force in political relations, the League must take the initiative in linking up the life of the nations intellectually. A good deal of pioneer work has already been done by scholars and reformers, who have pointed out the evils of excessive bias in national systems of education, who have been like voices in the wilderness insisting on the dangers implicit in the study of books that condone the limitations of one nation and present the shortcomings of others in a most lurid light, that tend to aggravate the natural differences between nations until, in the impressionable minds of the young, difference becomes synonymous with hostility. The seeds of wars are sown not only on public platforms and in the Press but first and foremost in the class-room and the lecture hall.

The reality of the League's achievements for the future must eventually be conditioned by the reality and sincere character of its efforts to embody progressive reform in an international system of education which may be at once truly national and genuinely international without being cosmopolitan or crudely propagandist.

But such experiments can be fruitfully conducted by the League only in an institution directly under its control. At any rate the starting-point of far-reaching reformers can be no other, for independent or state-controlled national universities would naturally resent attempts at catechising or interference.

Prof. Bergson's motion for the institution of courses on contemporary nations has been unanimously adopted by the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations. In the ordinary way, considerable time may elapse before various universities decide to make these courses a normal feature of their work. Given an institution such as I take the liberty to commend to my colleagues, the proposed experiment can be worked under favourable conditions. Should the results be striking, as, indeed, they promise to be, it remains for other universities to follow the lead.

The motion standing in the name of Prof. de Castro — also mine — regarding the need and desirability of exchange of professors in a systematic manner has also been accepted in principle. I have no doubt that universities throughout the civilised world would respond to this appeal. But, in this respect again, an international university under the League's control can take the initiative in making systematic exchanges of professors part of its ordinary routine and thus inspire the more sceptical universities with faith in the utility of such arrangements.

The remarks made in regard to the institution of courses on contemporary nations and the exchange of professors would apply *mutatis mutandis* to every positive proposal so far made by the Committee or recommended by the Sub-Committee. The proposed university can be made the culture-ground of every beneficent reform which has been carefully thought out by experts and to which reason and experience give preference over obsolete methods.

I make this proposal with considerable hesitation and reluctance, even though personally I am convinced that the establishment of such a university is the vital need of our age. The hesitation is due to fear lest one might be encroaching on the kindness of colleagues who have given generous consideration to other suggestions of mine. But an irresistible emotion, having its background in a strong conviction, urges me to submit this statement for fuller consideration by the Committee. One feels convinced that existing national universities, in spite of their splendid achievements, have fallen short of the purpose which they should primarily fulfil and subserve: namely, to use the life of the mind, *i.e.* mental discipline and self-expression, as a vehicle for the transmission and propagation of a spirit of concord and amity among nations. He will be a bold man, indeed, who might claim that only one university here and another there is the nursery of chauvinistic and separatist ideals and that the majority promote right understanding and reciprocal good-will. It is a grim tragedy daily being enacted before our eyes, this poisoning the impressionable minds of the young and firing their imagination with unworthy visions during the most critical period of life when love of adventure is strong and the heart spontaneously responds to calls for effort or sacrifice.

Vigorous, even bitter, criticism may perhaps rightly, certainly quite naturally, be directed against the suggestion to found a university with a view to promote sectarian and sectional propaganda, as, for instance, international pacifism or socialism or a colourless invertebrate cosmopolitanism. But no reasonable person, whatever his political or social convictions, can object to a university aiming at the broadening of the mental outlook of its alumni. Intellectual life is beyond the region of political controversy, and in educational matters each nation has made valuable contributions to culture which should be appreciated by all. In order that this appreciation may not remain the monopoly of the chosen few but that its range be gradually widened, it is imperative that more adequate facilities than at present exist should be provided for at an international centre of learning. And the organisation of such facilities constitutes the primary task of an international university which should be assigned specific functions and powers to award degrees and diplomas and be brought into being by an international charter.

The idea may at first sound a bit fantastic, but when we realise that a private individual like Dr. Rabindra Nath Tagore has already started an international university at Shantiniketan without obtaining any assistance from the Government but relying exclusively on private philanthropy, and that this university has already become a meeting-ground of contemporary cultures, Christian, Muhammadan, Buddhist, Hindu and Semitic, that spacious grounds have been secured for it as well as the co-operation of European savants, initial objections to the launching of such a scheme may be considerably reduced.

But certain objections might remain carrying due weight, and the chief of these objections may be urged on financial grounds. The scheme might be worth considering, but it sounds rather ambitious, and where is the money to come from? Should this objection be seriously raised, I should plead that in the meanwhile the proposal be given an *ad interim* consideration on its merits subject to its final acceptance in case financial guarantees are forthcoming. If, in the judgment of my colleagues, there is something concrete and substantial in the proposal corresponding to a real need, I believe it can afford to wait and stand the test of a searching enquiry before being carried into execution. If, on the contrary, the proposal does not point to something vital, urgent and indispensable, I shall take the decision of my colleagues in the spirit in which, I feel certain, it ought to be taken.

Financial difficulties have always loomed large in the history of all pioneer movements, and yet progressive movements have a way of triumphing over them when the impression gains ground that the new scheme corresponds to an unfulfilled need and when the public respond to the stimulus of a new appeal. It may not be wise, on *a priori* grounds, to conclude that in this case the financial obstacle will prove insurmountable, and, on this assumption, to dispose of the proposal summarily, nor hastily to assume that money will be available directly an appeal is made. The only rational course is to organise an appeal if after consideration of the proposal it is decided to press forward in this matter.

Other objections may be stronger than the financial one. It is so easy to start another University in the spirit of the older institutions and yet give it the name "international", or convert any vacant building at a big capital into an International University with the aid of international funds. What matters most is the spirit which the proposed University should symbolise and the objective it must pursue. New wine should not be put into old bottles. The success of the proposed University depends on the sincerity of efforts sedulously to steer clear of national interests and commitments and to make it a nursery of international ideals *i.e.*, ideals of concord and harmony among nations based on right understanding and reciprocal, disinterested appreciation. These efforts are possible; they are desirable. The success of the League as an instrument of peace depends on them.

Funds collected for the University may be administered by a trust composed of distinguished representatives of the countries concerned — representatives, moreover, who command the confidence of the public in their own countries. The Council of the League should be fully represented in the trust. The appointing of a Governing Body and the Academic Council of the University is a matter easily capable of adjustment. In practice, it need not present much difficulty at all. As more countries joined the League, they could send representatives to the Governing Body and the Academic Council.

During the initial stages, at least, the International University might, on the basis of co-operation with the local "National" University, arrive at a working arrangement whereby "ordinary" courses might be held at the latter University, the International University thus being free to concentrate its energies and efforts on its own peculiar work.

In organising its curricula of studies, special emphasis should be laid on the need for cultivating the international point of view by the aid of books which do not magnify national standards and preconceptions. This international mentality has nothing whatever in common with international pacifism and socialism or the cheap internationalism based on finance or the absence of a national home. It is compatible with the highest dictates of a sane patriotism ; it rests on a magnanimous and liberal view of life.

The seat of the University may be a European centre, conspicuous for its traditions of learning and recognised as the leading centre of European scholarships, which sets the model and the standard of efficiency in matters intellectual. This may be a subject for controversy, as every European capital may advance its claim to the first place. But, after all, this is only a question of detail. Paris, Oxford, Berlin, Brussels and Rome come to one's mind as likely places to choose from. For the present, however, it is not expedient that the centre should be in an ex-enemy country but in a country member of the League. If it is found difficult, in practice, to select an ordinary national centre without causing offence or producing an impression of partiality, the best alternative then would be to select the seat of the League of Nations as the seat for the International University. The governing consideration in the selection of a centre must be its potency to attract the greatest number of students from other countries. Any University which failed to do so could not possibly become self-supporting and might go bankrupt or it might be constantly drawing on the resources of the League or the trust constituted for the purpose.

As to the securing of an international charter, it need not present much difficulty. The League may, with the consent of all its members, issue it. This would both be a mandate and delegation of powers.

There must be ample provision in the curriculum of studies for a scientific study of oriental cultures : Japanese, Chinese, Arab, Persian, Semitic and Indian; and for literature dealing with ways and means how to promote co-operation between East and West on terms of honour, self-respect and equality. Each and every type of culture must be expounded by the best representatives of that culture : Indian culture by Indians, Persian civilisation by Persians and so on and so forth.

In the case of the British Commonwealth, it would be an advantage if scholarships were offered to capable students from India and the Dominions. The way would thus be paved for a better understanding among peoples isolated from each other through distance and lack of knowledge of conditions prevailing in other countries. The French could do the same in regard to prospective candidates from their overseas possessions.

National Universities which may approve of the work of the University and are in agreement with its ideals may apply for and secure affiliation to the International University in exchange for an undertaking that without disturbing their existing programmes, they will add a department where studies of an international nature will be conducted on a scientific basis.

There are unlimited possibilities for such a University to encourage scientific research in history, economics, colonial and diplomatic history, and the study of comparative institutions according to methods and aims different from those of the older tradition.

For the present, the International University may only undertake work and be responsible for studies that cannot be profitably conducted in National Universities. All other work necessary for the completion of a degree examination may, on the basis of an arrangement with the local National University, be carried on at the latter University for the benefit of the alumni of the International University.

I therefore take the liberty to propose, for the present, the following resolution:

"The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation recommends to the Council of the League of Nations, in the interests of a better understanding among nations and world-peace, the establishment of an International University under its auspices, the mandate for the proposed University to be given by the issue of an international charter from the League, and

"Requests the Council of the League to appoint a Representative Finance Committee who may organise an appeal for funds on behalf of the proposed International University."

Annex 7.

RELATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE WITH THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES ON MORAL EDUCATION

MEMORANDUM BY THE SECRETARIAT.

In the course of the discussion on the Report of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation by the Second Committee of the Third Assembly, Dr. Tcheou-Wei, Chinese delegate, made the following proposal :

" In view of the importance of the question of moral education, of the successful results of the last session of the International Congress on Moral Education held at Geneva in 1922, and of the resolution adopted by that congress for the creation of a

permanent international office of moral education, the Third Assembly of the League of Nations instructs the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to give a favourable hearing to any proposals which may be made to it by the organisations (Executive Committee and Organisation Committee) of the above-mentioned congress with a view to intellectual co-operation."

On the Chairman's proposal, the Second Committee of the Assembly decided to refer the question raised by the Chinese delegate to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for its consideration.

In accordance with this decision of the Assembly, on November 22nd Dr. Tcheou-Wei communicated to the Secretary of the Committee the minutes of the meeting of the Executive Council of International Congresses on Moral Education held at London on October 10th, 1922, in which the following passage occurs :

"The Council has heard with much satisfaction that M. Tcheou-Wei's motion at the Geneva Assembly of the League, September 19th, 1922, for placing the Congress in relation with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation was remitted to the latter Committee for consideration.

"The Secretary was directed to present a copy of the two Congress volumes to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and a copy of the "Vœu de Genève on History Teaching".

The text of this resolution was communicated to the members of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in a letter from the Secretary of the Committee dated November 29th, 1922.

It would appear that all the Executive Council of the Congress at present desires from the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation is an exchange of the publications of the two bodies and also of the texts of resolutions adopted by them.

It would therefore be desirable that the Committee should give its Secretary detailed instructions regarding the documents which it desires to communicate to the Council of the Congress.

This decision might be brought to the notice of the delegates at the Assembly in case they should desire to obtain information as to the action taken on the Chinese delegate's proposal.

Annex 8.

PROPOSAL OF M. MUNCH, DANISH DELEGATE AT THE ASSEMBLY, WITH REGARD TO INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC CONGRESSES.

MEMORANDUM BY THE SECRETARIAT.

In the course of the discussion on the Report of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation by the Second Committee of the Third Assembly, the Danish delegate, Dr. P. Munch, former Minister of National Defence and Member of Parliament, raised the question of the organisation of international scientific congresses in the following terms :

"There was another question which the speaker also wished to emphasise. Since the war, it had been difficult to convene scientific congresses in which savants belonging to belligerent countries could also take part. If such a situation continued to exist it would most seriously prejudice the interests of science.

"For this reason the Twentieth Inter-Parliamentary Conference, which had just been held at Vienna, had unanimously adopted a resolution proposed by the illustrious French educationist Ferdinand Buisson. This resolution was worded as follows : 'The Twentieth Inter-Parliamentary Conference recommends that, in the interest of science and of intellectual co-operation, all scientific congresses should be open to savants belonging to all countries irrespective of nationality.'

"He thought that the Committee should adopt this resolution. He quite understood that, during the first years after the war, it had been difficult to make scientific congresses fully representative ; the animosities created by the war were the chief impediment. However natural such animosities might be, the claims of science should now predominate. If diplomats and politicians were able to meet in international conferences it should also be possible for savants to meet on the common ground of science. It would be of great advantage for the renewal of scientific relations that the authority of the League of Nations should reinforce that of the Inter-Parliamentary Union.

"He therefore proposed a fifth resolution :

'The Committee requests the Assembly to recommend that, in the interest of science and of intellectual co-operation, all scientific congresses should be open to savants belonging to all countries irrespective of nationality.'

During this discussion on this proposal, Professor Gilbert Murray, South African delegate and Vice-Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, stated, in reply to M. Munch,

that for the same reasons he had already proposed to add the following words to the first resolution in M. de Jouvenel's report regarding the continuation of the work of the Committee:

“ and it expresses the hope that the Committee will continue its task with the co-operation of the most eminent men of all countries ”.

He thought that this addition would, to a great extent, meet the objections of the Danish delegate, who might accordingly be willing to withdraw his own proposal.

It would be useless for men who were unable to co-operate on account of mutual hostility to sit down at the same table. It would take time to achieve co-operation on the part of all savants.

He thought that an international conference held at the present time which did not include all nationalities would not indicate progress but would be a retrograde step.

After further discussion between M. Munch and Professor Murray, the Chairman of the Second Committee of the Assembly proposed that M. Munch's resolution should be considered by a special sub-committee composed of M. Munch, Professor Murray and M. Avramovitch, (Delegate of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes) with M. de Jouvenel as Chairman.

This Sub-Committee met on September 21st, 1922, and arrived at the following conclusion :

“ As regards the resolution proposed by M. Munch, to which the additional recommendation No 1 proposed by Professor Gilbert Murray already corresponds, the Sub-Committee, after discussion, unanimously decided, with M. Munch's approval, to ask the Second Committee of the Assembly to approve the principle it contains in the following terms :

“ The Second Committee, having regard to the universal character of science, decides to insert in its minutes the recommendation that, in the interests of science and of intellectual co-operation, all scientific congresses shall be open to the scientists of all countries without distinction of nationality.

“ Professor Gilbert Murray, Vice-Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, will take the necessary steps to submit this recommendation to the consideration of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.”

This decision was brought to the notice of the Plenary Committee by M. de Jouvenel in the following terms :

“ As regards the resolution proposed by M. Munch, the Sub-Committee was of opinion that the case was met by the addition to paragraph 1 of the words proposed by Professor Gilbert Murray, and it thought it desirable that the consideration of the resolution should be referred to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. M. Munch had accepted that solution.”

1923⁵
[Distributed to the Council,
to the Members of the League
and to the Delegates at the Assembly].

A. 66. 1923. XII.
[C. 573 (I). 1923. XII.]

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

WORK OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

REPORT BY M. HANOTAUX

adopted by the Council on September 10th, 1923.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation held its second session at Geneva from July 26th to August 2nd, 1923. The results of its work in the course of the year have been communicated to you in a Report which will also be submitted to the Assembly.

I am sure that I am giving expression to the unanimous feeling of the Council in thanking the eminent Chairman of the Committee and his colleagues most warmly for their valuable co-operation in the work of the League of Nations.

As my colleagues will have observed, the members of the Committee and their expert advisers, meeting either in sub-committee or in plenary sessions, have already made great progress with the study of the programme they submitted to us last year. They have summarised with such clearness and conciseness the results which have been obtained, and have so well defined their programme for next year, that I think I need make no further reference to the details of these questions.

Nevertheless, I am sure that the Council would like to draw special attention to some of the more important of the results already obtained. In particular, it will hail with satisfaction the constitution of national Committees on Intellectual Co-operation which, at the instance of our Committee, have been spontaneously formed in a large number of countries in Europe. The Council will see by the list of these committees that the countries where the conditions of intellectual work are the most difficult have eagerly welcomed the idea of co-operation and mutual assistance between intellectual workers. This movement contains the germs of a promising organisation which is entirely in conformity with the principles of the League of Nations, will entail little expense and will considerably increase the opportunities of intercourse between the national administrations dealing with questions of intellectual work.

The Committee has issued an appeal to the more-favoured countries to constitute national committees also. We all feel certain that this appeal will be heard.

It is also unquestionable that the work in favour of the protection of scientific property, summarised in such masterly fashion by Senator Ruffini, will raise legitimate hopes in the scientific world. This is the gratifying sequel to the movement which procured the recognition, a good many years ago, of the rights of authorship of writers and artists. No one to-day would think of contesting these rights. It is to be hoped that the work undertaken by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will meet with the same success. It will satisfy the aspirations of existing federations of intellectual workers. As you know, a certain number of these federations formed an international Federation some months ago in the course of a conference which met at Paris.

The Secretary-General of this International Association took part in some of the discussions of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation at Geneva, and brought to its notice points of great interest in regard to its work for next year.

As regards bibliography, the Committee was able to reach practical conclusions which should be easy to realise, and it recommends the publication of an annual record of information.

The Committee also considered the question of archæological research. It is a well-known fact that a quantity of material and documents of great value are in danger of destruction or dilapidation with a consequent loss to science. On this question, the Committee has expressed a desire to enter into relations with the International Academic Union and with the Mandates Commission with a view to considering the possibility of an international understanding on this matter.

As regards inter-university relations, the Committee noted the advantages which would accrue from the establishment of an international office for university information. There can be no doubt that an office of this kind would be of the utmost service and the proposals submitted by the Commission are of great interest. But, owing to the fresh expense which the establishment of this

body might involve, the Council will no doubt wish to draw the attention of the Assembly to this point in order that the Fourth Committee may be consulted in due course.

The question of the adoption of an auxiliary international language had been submitted by the Assembly for consideration by the Committee. After having studied the question from every point of view, and considering that "its efforts should be directed towards promoting the study of living languages and foreign literatures", the Committee decided that it would not recommend an artificial language to the consideration of the League of Nations.

I would suggest that you should invite the Committee to continue the work which it has undertaken and to submit its full report to the Assembly.

I submit to the Council the following resolutions on certain specific points:

"1. Having regard to its decisions of October 4th, 1922, and January 30th, 1923, the Council approves the proposal of the Committee to utilise the national Committees on Intellectual Co-operation which have been formed in the various countries for the systematic organisation of mutual intellectual assistance for the benefit of the countries which are in a position of special difficulty. With a view to co-ordinating the efforts which have been made in this direction, it authorises the Committee to invite a representative of each of these national Committees to attend its next Session.

"2. Having noted the first results of its appeal regarding the extension of the Conventions of 1886 for the International Exchange of Publications and of the work of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography in this connection, the Council draws the attention of the Assembly to the recommendation of the Committee to the effect that a conference of experts should meet under the auspices of the League of Nations for the purpose of revising these conventions.

"3. The Council forwards to the Assembly the proposal of Senator Ruffini in regard to the protection of scientific property and recommends it to its attention.

"4. The Council has decided to forward to the Permanent Mandates Commission the scheme relating to archæological research in the mandated territories, a scheme which was drawn up by the Union académique internationale and recommended by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation."

323⁶
(Communicated to the Council,
to the Members of the League
and to the Delegates at the Assembly.)

A. 96. 1923. XII.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

GENEVA,

September 25th, 1923.

INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

**Validity in all States, on a Basis of Reciprocity, of certain Secondary Education Diplomas:
Establishment of an International University; Institution of a Higher Education Degree
in all Countries Members of the League of Nations, such Diplomas being Valid for
all the Countries in Question.**

REPORT TO THE ASSEMBLY BY THE FIFTH COMMITTEE.

(*Rapporteur* : M. DE PALACIOS.)

Although the Spanish Government's proposals, which I have the honour to submit for the consideration of the Assembly, deal with three different questions, namely, the recognition by all countries of secondary educational diplomas, the establishment of an International University and the creation of a higher educational degree in all countries Members of the League of Nations, these questions all derive from the original principle proclaimed by the authors of the Covenant as the inspiration of our League: the development of co-operation between nations.

There can be no doubt that the Spanish Government's proposals constitute an expression of national collaboration and solidarity of a high order. The proposal does not, in point of fact, introduce any new ideas, but is concerned simply with methods of applying suggestions which have already been laid before the League of Nations and the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

These proposals have not been developed in detail, and this is perhaps just as well, since it would not be wise at such an early date to attempt to regulate the principles suggested by the Spanish Government for your approval. These principles, if the Assembly shares the opinion held by the Fifth Committee, should be submitted to the distinguished members of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, in order that they may consider them in the light of their wide knowledge and experience.

I.

The first of the Spanish Government's proposals is to the effect that "*Secondary educational diplomas which do not confer the right to exercise a profession shall be valid in all countries, and shall enable their holders to participate in courses of higher instruction.*"

As you will doubtless have noted in the report of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, dated August 15th, 1923 (A. 31. 1923. XII, pages 8 and 16), the problem of the equivalent recognition of studies and degrees has already received special attention, and the Committee was of opinion that it would be advisable to institute an enquiry into the question of equivalent recognition as it at present exists between various universities and countries, for the purpose of furnishing a basis for subsequent investigations by the Committee.

The Spanish Government considers that a distinction should be drawn between secondary educational diplomas which do not confer the right to exercise a profession and others. It is of opinion that the validity of the first category should be recognised by all Governments without proceeding to any detailed investigation of the equivalent value of the range of subjects which these degrees cover in each country. Subject-matter of this nature is nearly always the same in all countries, and the studies are of an academic and preliminary nature, the object of which is to enable the pupil to undertake higher studies.

The essential purpose of secondary education is to develop intelligence and memory, as well as a psychological aptitude on the part of the pupils to pursue higher studies, and to train their will to meet the social obligations of life. This double psycho-sociological function of secondary or intermediate education is fulfilled independently of the curriculum adopted in each State.

I can, moreover, advance an argument drawn from actual facts. I leave you to form your own opinion as to its value, though it appears to me to be beyond dispute. I refer to the experiment made by Spain, in which country, since 1913, all diplomas issued by the competent authorities of any State whatever have been accepted as valid. I can assure the Assembly that the information collected by the Spanish Ministry of Education goes to show that the results obtained during the past decade have been excellent. Spanish legislation in this connection does not secure exclusive privileges for nationals; on the contrary, it provides privileges and exemptions for foreigners. Spain would be glad to see her liberal example in this matter followed by other Members of the League.

II.

The Spanish Government also proposes that *"an international autonomous university, having academic jurisdiction and freedom, shall be established in one of the four universities of Christendom — Paris, Salamanca, Oxford or Bologna — with the right of conferring degrees and issuing diplomas which would be recognised in all States Members of the League of Nations. Its professors would be selected from among the most distinguished intellectual and scientific personalities, regardless of their nationality."*

There is no need to draw the attention of the Assembly to the importance of this proposal. When the proper time comes to examine the scheme in all its details, we shall have to consider one by one a whole series of problems arising out of this suggestion: how the International University is to be created, what is to be the measure of its autonomy, jurisdiction and freedom, where it is to be situated, what is to be the nature of the instruction given, the validity of its degrees, its professorial staff, the language in which instruction is to be imparted, its financial resources, and so on.

I do not think that we need at present proceed to discuss each of these questions in detail. We shall confine ourselves to the general principles of the proposals, which I suggest should also be referred to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, by whom this scheme of the Spanish Government may be studied, possibly in conjunction with the proposals submitted by Professor Bannerjee, concerning the creation of an International University under the auspices of the League of Nations. The sound judgment of the members of the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations and of the other members of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will once again be exercised in drawing up a report on the basis of which the Fifth Assembly will be able to adopt a resolution in this connection.

I hope that this report will lay down the lines on which it would be most convenient to establish a centre of learning for all nations, a scientific laboratory of the most advanced character, an educational training-centre for the formation of a nucleus of professors for universities throughout the world, an organisation for the development and dissemination of world progress in science.

Spain, which founded in America the universities of Buenos Ayres, San José, Havana, Santiago de Chile, Guatemala, Quito, Tegucigalpa, Mexico, Assumption, Lima, San Salvador, Montevideo, Caracas and Merida; Spain, which founded in Europe, in addition to the twelve Spanish universities, those of Utrecht, Groningen, Cagliari, Catania and many others, and which also founded in Oceania the University of Saint Thomas at Manilla, now requests the League of Nations to establish an International University with authority to issue degrees which will be recognised by all the Members of the League.

III.

The last proposal of the Spanish Government is that *"there shall be created in each of the States Members of the League a higher educational centre for all branches of higher study; the diplomas issued by this centre would confer in all States a right to exercise professions. The minimum standard of study should be the same in all countries."*

This proposal is of a subsidiary nature. The Spanish Government considers that no effort should be spared to attain what may be styled the internationalisation of certain studies and certain university degrees which represent the highest standard of learning. This aim, which so fully conforms to the ideals of the League of Nations, should, in the opinion of the Spanish Government, be attained by creating an International University of the nature, and under the conditions, outlined in the second proposal. But if, owing to unavoidable circumstances, the League of Nations cannot undertake that the International University shall from the beginning possess the right to issue internationally recognised degrees, the Spanish Government suggests that this power should be accorded to one of the universities of each of the Members of the League, in return naturally for the necessary guarantees, of which the principal one must be the fixing of a common minimum standard of studies.

As the Assembly will doubtless have noted from the foregoing statement — which I have attempted to make as short as possible — the Spanish Government's proposals constitute a contribution to the common aims of the League of Nations. They have been submitted, I can assure you, in all good faith, and with the most sincere desire to assist us in advancing along that path of intellectual, scientific and practical progress which it is the special duty of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to point out.

These proposals are inspired by the same ideal which underlies the work of the inter-university co-operation undertaken by the above-mentioned Committee, namely, collaboration with a view to improving the status of higher education, an attempt to discover the highest quality of study, to encourage scientific work for the benefit of learning in general, and to maintain or re-establish contact between the intellectual aristocracy and the masses.

I have therefore the honour to propose to the Assembly the following resolution:

“The ASSEMBLY,

“Having noted, with all the interest due to the great importance of the subject, the Spanish Government’s proposals concerning the equivalent recognition in all States of certain secondary educational diplomas, the creation of an International University, and the foundation of a higher educational establishment in each of the countries Members of the League of Nations, whose diplomas shall be valid in all countries Members of the League;

“And having duly appreciated the importance of these proposals: without prejudice to the main issue involved:

“Decides to request the Council to refer these proposals to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for consideration, in order that this Committee may draw up a report on the subject to be submitted to the Fifth Assembly.”

GENEVA,

September 26th, 1923.

League of Nations.

WORK OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

REPORT PRESENTED TO THE ASSEMBLY BY THE FIFTH COMMITTEE.

(*Rapporteur* : M. Jacques BARDOUX, Assistant Delegate of France.)

The Fifth Committee of the Assembly has had two documents laid before it: the report of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation on the work of the second session, signed by its Chairman, M. Bergson, of the Académie française, and by its Rapporteur, M. de Reynold, Dean of the University of Berne, and the report by M. Hanotaux, of the Académie française, which has been adopted by the Council (Documents A. 32. 1923. XII and A. 66. 1923. XII). It has carefully studied the conclusions contained therein.

By discussing these questions thus thoroughly, the Fifth Committee wished to give evidence once more of the League's considered interest in the various problems of intellectual assistance. On behalf of all nations, it owes this testimony of international gratitude to the intellectual workers, who have been impoverished in such a cruel way by the crisis through which the world is passing as it slowly re-adapts itself to the labours of Peace. The Assembly of mankind wishes to proclaim that it cannot ensure the stability of Peace unless at the same time re-establishing the rule of Intellect. Furthermore, the latter will be unable to recover its previous power without mutual assistance and interpenetration. Recent experience has shown that rigid and narrow intellectual nationalism, which refuses to study and understand the culture of other countries, would constitute an obstacle to progress and a menace to Peace.

In this domain, closely connected as it is with the surest guarantees of the unity of a State and with the most legitimate activities of a free people, it is desirable that nothing should be undertaken which might appear to menace its inviolable independence or limit the scope of originality.

The Fifth Committee considers that the decisions which it recommends to the Assembly are of a nature to encourage intellectual co-operation as it deserves, without over-stepping the comparatively narrow boundaries traced by Justice and History.

It has carefully refrained from making general recommendations and has confined itself to the realm of practical and immediate possibilities. This was the best method of serving the interests of intellectual work and of adding to the prestige of the League of Nations.

In its first resolution, the Fifth Committee suggests that the Assembly should lay down the principle that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation cannot have full authority nor be fully effective unless it is really and entirely representative. It should represent not only the various intellectual methods but also the various national cultures.

I have said "national cultures" and not "intellectual nationalisms". It has never been the intention of the Fifth Committee to change the character and composition of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. It merely wishes to point out that the Committee could never truthfully reflect the various forms of human thought except by taking into consideration not only the original creations of intellectual training but also those which are the result of collective thinking.

In order to leave the Council complete liberty in the examination of candidates, who should be tested both by their undoubted talents and by their representative worth, the Committee thought it advisable to point out that a system of rotation might be introduced in the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, the number of whose members might with advantage be increased.

The Fifth Committee has already a number of requests to forward to the Council. The first have been formulated by the representatives of Roumania, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Czechoslovakia, the Spanish-speaking American countries, and the Asiatic nations. With a desire for universal reconciliation, the Fifth Committee has, after recalling the intentions of the Council towards Austria, also added to this list Ireland and the Finno-Ugrian peoples. The mere mention of these names is sufficient justification. No further argument is necessary. Attention and imagination will suffice.

I do not think I shall be exceeding the impersonal neutrality befitting a Rapporteur if I state that, after endorsing the justifiable request of Roumania, Venezuela and China, acting on behalf of their groups, the French Delegation has had the honour of taking the initiative in mentioning again the claim of Austria as representative of Germanic culture.

This list is by no means complete. There are obviously certain gaps. The name of Portugal was put forward, but not included, owing to an error of procedure. This is, however, of little importance. It is for the Council to pronounce, without appeal, as to these candidatures, which will only be justifiable if they are sufficiently conspicuous and original to ensure a more complete representation of methods and cultures. However, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation can give immediate satisfaction to some of these claims, especially that of Portugal, by the way in which it allocates its posts of corresponding members.

Two conditions are indispensable for the Committee, even after its numbers have been increased, to fulfil the task of organisation and realisation with which it is faced.

In the first place, national Committees on Intellectual Co-operation must act as its correspondents and collaborators. About a dozen have been created. The second resolution is aimed at encouraging the extension of such enterprises. It will be advisable for these Committees to include, in addition to the representatives of learned and professional societies, those of the associations which in certain countries such as France have already organised mutual intellectual assistance with other countries.

Secondly, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation cannot do without a permanent organisation. This is the considered opinion of its eminent Chairman, M. Bergson, who did not hesitate on one occasion to come here in person to support this contention with all the brilliance of his arresting personality. This is also the unanimous opinion of the Fifth Committee and has been approved by the Fourth Committee. It is not proposed to add to the League of Nations an International Ministry of Intellectual Affairs: it is proposed simply to transform, as it were, the secretariat of the Committee into an International Office for University Information. The French Delegation's well-known insistence on economy should reassure the Assembly in regard to the cost of this measure which is laid down in the third resolution. An increase of 14,920 francs in the estimates would be sufficient to cover the expenditure.

It will be the duty of this Office, under the control and direction of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, to carry out an extensive programme, which was prepared at its earlier sessions. The Fifth Committee proposes this programme to the Assembly for adoption.

1. In the first place, the enquiry into the conditions of intellectual life in the various countries (Resolution II) must be expedited and the results published. Unless the documents relating to this enquiry in the different countries are available, it will be vain to attempt to organise mutual intellectual assistance.

2. It will be necessary to collect and to classify through the instrumentality of the National Offices for University Information, where such Offices exist, particulars regarding the equivalent recognition of studies and degrees, University curricula, and in particular those courses (contemporary history, foreign languages, vacation courses) which appear to be specially valuable in promoting close intellectual intercourse. I shall say nothing of the interchange of professors and students (Resolution III). Without the necessary documents dealing with University questions, any attempt to prepare a scheme for intellectual assistance is doomed to failure.

3. It will further be necessary to publish works and make the necessary preparations for bibliographical conferences; to consider the revision and enlarge the scope of the clauses in international Conventions regarding the co-operation of libraries and the exchange of publications (Resolution IV). Without this work of scientific documentation it will be impossible to organise mutual intellectual assistance.

The Fifth Committee, deeply moved by the disaster which has befallen one of the centres of Asiatic culture, the cradle of a graceful and profound art, and at the same time, filled with admiration for the silent and stoical, the wise and noble, fortitude of which the Japanese Delegation has given us so worthy an example, requests the Assembly in its fifth resolution to instruct the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to consider the means of facilitating the restoration of literary and scientific collections of which the Empire of the Rising Sun has now to deplore the loss.

Two points in the programme of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation have engaged the special attention of the Fifth Committee.

If, unfortunately, it has not approved with absolute unanimity the principle underlying Senator Ruffini's proposal, it has been in complete agreement in requesting the Assembly to decide that this proposal should be transmitted to all States Members of the League of Nations for their comments and suggestions, with a view to enabling a final draft international Convention to be prepared eventually for submission to the Fifth Assembly (Resolution VI).

If the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and the Fifth Committee of the Assembly had declined to concern themselves in the campaign organised in France, Italy and Belgium for the purpose of according to scientific discovery the same international protection as that given to industrial invention, artistic work and literary creation; if, I repeat, those two bodies had declined to investigate, to approve, and to transmit the striking plan prepared by Senator Ruffini, which is based on the legislative measure proposed by our distinguished colleague Joseph Barthélemy, they would undoubtedly have failed in their duties and neglected to carry out their mission. It would be idle to claim that we were encouraging a love of learning and mutual intellectual assistance

if at the same time we had accepted unchallenged an unfair and invidious distinction in the guarantees afforded in regard to property in ideas and in the value assigned to higher creative work.

Why should the discovery of acetylene, wireless telegraphy and quinine not confer the same rights as the invention of an electric switch and a curtain rod, the editing of a book and the painting of a picture, the writing of a play or a musical composition?

The Fifth Committee confidently brings before the Assembly this legitimate demand on the part of intellectual workers.

The Fifth Committee, to which the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation has submitted a proposal for establishing in the Charterhouse at Capri a study centre for artists of all countries, has been unanimous, in demanding a full enquiry, in leaving the decision on the matter to the Council (Resolution VII).

In thus planning its work so as to achieve practical results in the immediate future, the Fifth Committee is of opinion that it has acted in accordance with the hopes and the express wish of the Fourth Assembly of the League of Nations. The time for words is past; we must now gird ourselves for action.

Resolution I.

The Assembly, considering it desirable to increase the authority of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation by enlarging it so that it should represent not only the various intellectual methods but also the various national cultures; having noted with satisfaction the intention expressed by the Council at its meeting of April 23rd, 1923, of adding to the Committee on the occasion of the next vacancy a professor of the University of Vienna as representative of the Germanic culture; having noted also the legitimate demands expressed by the Delegates of Roumania, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes and Czechoslovakia, by the Spanish-speaking Delegate of America, by the Asiatic Delegates and by the Delegates of Ireland and of the Finno-Ugrian nations: requests the Council to consider the possibility of increasing the number of members on the Committee, introducing at the same time a system of rotation to be determined.

Resolution II.

The Assembly, considering that it is important to encourage and facilitate the work of mutual intellectual assistance among the various nations, endorses the resolution adopted by the Council, and

- (a) Expresses the hope that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, availing itself of the help of the delegates of the National Committees, will, at its next session, take up with renewed energy the urgent problem of intellectual assistance;
- (b) Is of opinion that National Committees should also be established in those countries which have already organised intellectual co-operation on definite lines and in a different way;
- (c) Requests the Council to ask the Governments Members of the League of Nations to be good enough to lend their moral and financial support to these National Committees — if they have not already done so — and to authorise the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to receive from any institution or private person interested in the work, funds destined for this purpose; and
- (d) Invites the Committee to continue the investigation into the conditions of intellectual life which it has started and to communicate the results obtained.

Resolution III.

The Assembly, taking note of the statements of the Committee and of its Chairman in regard to the impossibility of continuing their work unless an international university information office is formed, authorises the Committee to convert its secretariat into an international university information office.

The initial activities of this office might include:

- (a) Communication of the recommendations of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for their information to the competent authorities and particularly to the national university information office.
- (b) Publication of any information which it may receive, especially from National University Information Bureaux, where such bureaux exist, in regard to the equivalence of studies and diplomas recognised by different countries, the curricula of universities, especially university courses relative to modern nations, teaching of modern languages, literatures and civilisations and international vacation courses.
- (c) Preparation of a meeting between the University Sub-Committee and the delegates of the international students' associations with a view to examining methods of extending the exchange of students, with the concurrence of their universities.
- (d) Establishment of relations with all the organisations existing in various countries for the purposes of rendering exchanges of professors more frequent.

Resolution IV.

The Assembly, sharing the Committee's conviction that the international organisation of bibliography serves to establish closer touch between scholars in different countries and to facilitate their individual studies:

- (a) Invites the Committee to publish the "Index Bibliographicus" which it has planned and to pursue its enquiries in regard to co-operation between the libraries or groups of libraries which have been formed in the different countries, and in regard to the utilisation of the work of the International Bibliographical Institute at Brussels;
- (b) Authorises the Committee forthwith to take the necessary steps to summon technical conferences for the purpose of co-ordinating the work of analytical bibliography abstracts in certain specified sciences; and
- (c) Requests the Council, in agreement with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, to convene a conference of experts to prepare the eventual revision of international conventions relative to the exchange of publications of every kind: books, periodicals, catalogues, papers and theses.

Resolution V.

The Assembly, grieving at the calamity which has stricken the universities and libraries of the capital of Japan, invites the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to study means to afford international assistance so far as to facilitate the reconstitution of the library and scientific collections which have been destroyed in Japan.

Resolution VI.

The Assembly, approving the principle of Senator Ruffini's scheme in regard to the protection of scientific property, and in consideration of the resolution on this subject adopted by the Council, decided to forward this scheme to all the Governments, requesting them to communicate to the Secretariat of the League of Nations any observations they may wish to make, in order to enable the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to draw up, if the necessity arises, a final draft convention to be placed on the agenda of the Fifth Assembly and submitted subsequently to all the States for signature and ratification.

Resolution VII.

The Assembly, noting with satisfaction that the Committee has given its consideration to international problems relative to art and artists, authorises the Committee to establish relations with the municipality of Capri, which has offered to place the Charterhouse at Capri at the disposal of the artists of the various countries, in order to ascertain, after enquiry, whether the Council should be asked to accept this offer.

Resolution VIII.

The Assembly urges the Governments of the States Members to arrange that the children and youth in their respective countries where such teaching is not given be made aware of the existence and aims of the League of Nations and the terms of its Covenant.

C. I. C. I. 1923. I.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY

INTO THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

First Series

GENERAL QUESTIONS

THE CONDITIONS OF
LIFE AND WORK
OF
MUSICIANS

by William MARTIN

Representative of the International Labour Office
on the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation

Volume I

NOTE

The sole object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing these reports is to draw attention to the questions of organisation and intellectual co-operation which arise in relation to each of the subjects dealt with. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but merely to draw the reader's attention to them and to provide an opening for fresh suggestions.

MEMORANDUM OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

ON THE

CONDITIONS OF LIFE AND WORK OF MUSICIANS

I. — INTRODUCTORY NOTE

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, at its meeting of August 20th, 1922, considered a draft resolution drawn up by Madame CURIE and M. DE REYNOLD, which ran as follows :

"The Committee begs the Council of the League of Nations to present the following proposal to the Assembly :

"That an enquiry should be instituted into the condition of those engaged in intellectual work in the various countries, into the disadvantages under which the intellectual life of the various countries at present suffers, and into the remedies which are proposed; this enquiry should take account in particular of the economic position of intellectual workers."

In the course of the discussion, M. DE REYNOLD made the following statement :

"It would be desirable to ask the International Labour Office to institute an enquiry not only on the subject of salaries and wages but also on the general conditions of life and work of intellectual workers, the exact meaning of the latter phrase being explained and defined. It might be possible, *e.g.*, to restrict the enquiry to artists and to university professors."

M. William MARTIN, the representative of the International Labour Office on the Committee, stated that the enquiry would fill a real need which was felt among intellectual workers in all countries, and that he was authorised to place the services of the International Labour Office at the disposal of the Committee for the work in question.

M. DESTRÉE drew the attention of the Committee to the difficult situation in which musicians were placed in a number of countries, and asked that the enquiry should cover the conditions of work of musicians. The results of the discussion are summarised in the report of the Committee to the Council in the following terms :

"Logically, the general enquiry should be supplemented by a special enquiry into the economic condition of the workers themselves. As, however, it is difficult to deal with all of these workers in one and the same enquiry, the Committee would propose to commence with certain limited categories. In regard to the choice of these categories, the Committee is acting on the principle that it has not to concern itself so much with the worker as with his intellectual work. It is, above all, the individual who counts in science, in literature and in the fine arts. Co-operation would therefore be impossible unless protection were afforded from the beginning to those who, among brain-workers, represent fine art, the highest education, and disinterested science.

"For this reason the Committee recommends that the first researches be conducted among artists, either painters or musicians, and university professors. It should be added that, in the course of the discussion on this question, M. William Martin was good enough to place the services of the International Labour Office, which he represents, at the disposal of the Committee."

In the ensuing months, the Secretariat of the League of Nations and the International Labour Office made a joint study of the manner in which the International Labour Office could assist the work of the Committee. The International Labour Office agreed to undertake that part of the enquiry which referred to musicians. The agreement was confirmed successively by the Chairman of the Committee, Professor Bergson, in a letter dated November 18th, 1922, and Dr. Nitobé, Under Secretary-General of the League of Nations, in a letter dated January 11th, 1923. The former letter contained the following passage :

"The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will undoubtedly have great satisfaction in learning that the International Labour Office has accepted the invitation of the Committee. I am aware that the question of the conditions of life of musicians is one with which you are particularly well prepared to deal. It will, therefore, be understood, if you agree, that this part of the enquiry is to be reserved for the International Labour Office."

Dr. NITOBÉ wrote as follows :

"I am sure that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will greatly appreciate the important service which the International Labour Office has consented to render it by undertaking the investigation of the situation of musicians in the various countries."

The International Labour Office considered that the first step to be taken with a view to carrying out the enquiry was to send a questionnaire to the organisations of musicians with which it was already in touch.

The replies received were not as numerous as might have been hoped. Replies were received from the following countries :

Austria	8	France	1	Netherlands	2
Australia	1	Germany	4	Poland	1
Bulgaria	1	Great Britain	3	Portugal	1
Czechoslovakia	1	Hungary	1	Spain	1
Denmark	1	Italy	3	Switzerland	4

It will be noticed that several countries, including some of the most important, sent few replies. Others did not reply to all the questions which were asked. Again, the questions themselves did not cover the entire field which the International Labour Office was asked to investigate and did not suffice to give an adequate idea of the various tendencies of the musical world and the living conditions of musicians who do not belong to any organisation.

In order to supplement the information obtained by means of the questionnaire, M. William Martin therefore undertook a personal investigation in a number of countries, including Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Austria, Hungary and Switzerland. Miss Alice Simon, who is an expert on musical matters in Poland, also contributed towards this work, the results of which are submitted to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in the present report.

The International Labour Office is aware that the results of its enquiry are not complete. The Office considers, however, that such information as has already been collected throws an interesting light on the position of musicians. There are, nevertheless, serious difficulties in the way of making comparisons. The matters with which the attention of the musical world is concerned are so different that it has not been possible to adopt or maintain a rigid scheme. It is these divergences which make the enquiry useful and interesting; but, at the same time, they constitute its chief difficulty.

There is one point in particular which requires some preliminary explanation. The fluctuations in the exchange rate of certain national currencies are so violent that a comparison between the actual salaries paid in the various countries is misleading. An attempt has been made to overcome this difficulty by relating all the money values mentioned in the report to a common standard. It did not appear desirable to adopt a gold basis, or the rate of exchange with gold-standard countries, for this standard. What the Committee wants to know is the conditions under which musicians live, and what matters to the person who receives a salary is not its value abroad but its purchasing power at home. The present purchasing power of the national currencies has therefore, as far as possible, been expressed on the basis of the cost-of-living index numbers in terms of pre-war money. This method cannot, of course, be strictly accurate, as the index numbers themselves cannot be wholly relied upon. It is considered, however, that it gives a reasonably correct idea of the present-day living conditions of individuals; and, in any case, no better method is available.

* * *

The musical profession is distinguished from all other kinds of artistic work by its pre-eminently social character. A painter works in solitude, without coming into contact with the public. A musician, on the other hand, is seldom in isolation. If he is a soloist he performs in public; if he is a composer, it is still for the public that he works; if he is an orchestral player, he forms part of a community.

The social character of the musical profession makes it particularly sensitive to economic and general conditions. It might be said with little exaggeration that a painter, if he has private means, is able to remain in his studio without concerning himself with the prosperity of his country. In a poor community, however, there is no public for musical performances. If there is no public there will be neither composers, soloists, nor orchestras; and if there are no musicians there can be no music.

These are the considerations which make a study of the conditions of life and work of musicians a matter of special interest at the present time. Such a study shows the effect produced by an economic crisis which has been everywhere felt, though its form and its causes have not everywhere been the same, in a profession which is eminently necessary to civilisation but is not indispensable for the existence of individuals. In a word, it shows the effects of the economic situation on civilisation itself in one of its highest manifestations.

Musicians occupy a place in society which falls partly on one and partly on the other side of the line dividing the proletariat from the liberal professions; and they offer an example of the difficulty of drawing a sharp distinction between intellectual and manual workers.

Musical composers occupy a position similar to that of authors and inventors. Like them, they accomplish creative work. Like them, they hand over their ideas to executive workers for reproduction and multiplication. Like them again, they reach their public through a publisher, and they receive their remuneration in the form of authors' rights.

Teachers of music are connected with the teaching profession in all its forms — public, private and independent.

Operatic singers may be classed as actors.

Café and cinema performers who perform in bands of four or five, under the direction of one of their number, may be compared to artisans.

Performers in large orchestras have, to a certain extent, those collective interests out of which trade unionism arises. They may be compared to certain classes of skilled workers using machines of precision — in their case, their instrument.

Finally, performers in regimental bands come under military discipline.

In addition to the differences arising out of the different functions of musicians, there are those arising out of nationality. Before the war the financial and general position of a musician was not the same in France as in Germany. French musicians regarded themselves as artists

and demanded a place among the liberal professions. German musicians were members of the proletariat as far as living conditions were concerned, and they ranged themselves resolutely on the side of the workers. They were far less highly paid than French performers, and they were therefore able to obtain posts as orchestral players in nearly all countries.

At the present day the situation has, to some extent, changed. The liberal professions as a whole are passing through a crisis, and the French musicians have not escaped its effects. The German manual workers, on the other hand, have been able to obtain a considerable improvement in their situation, partly because they are strongly organised and partly owing to the social policy adopted since the Revolution. There still remains, however, a profound difference between the views of German and French musicians as regards the character of their vocation and their position in society.

The divergences are indeed so great that one is at times inclined to deny that a musical profession exists at all. It remains true, however, that all musicians, from famous composers and celebrated performers down to street singers and cinema pianists, have one interest in common music.

Immense as is the apparent diversity between the different categories of musicians, they represent in many cases different stages in the same career. The humblest musicians may be either beginners or artists who have fallen on evil times. It is among them that the genius of the future is to be found. They constitute the soil without which the tree could not grow; the obscure mass of workers without whom genius could not come into being. There are no fixed boundaries between their functions, and they re-act one upon another. When teachers of music become involved in difficulties, the standard of musical education falls, the profession ceases to receive recruits, orchestras deteriorate, and composers are unable to find exponents. The interdependence of the various classes of musicians constitutes the unity of the profession.

There is, moreover, one category of the profession around which all the others centre. This category constitutes the origin, the means, or the end. There are very few musicians who are entirely independent of the orchestra. Composers write for the orchestra; virtuosi play for the orchestra; conductors direct it; and nearly all instrumentalists play for it, have played for it, or will play for it. Not more than a few performers could be found in any capital who have never played in an orchestra. The proportion of musicians who belong to their professional organisation is, therefore, greater than that in any other profession. A spirit of comradeship prevails between the members of the orchestra and their conductor, whom they often elect themselves. Chorus singers and musicians, soloists and their accompanists, composers and performers who execute their works, are all united by common interests and identical aims. The orchestra ensures that there shall be solidarity among them all.

The musical profession, diverse as it may be in appearance, is in reality an organic whole. From the point of view of the art of music and its future, it is impossible to say that one musician is more important than another. It is only in appearance that "star" performers are more necessary than the orchestral musicians whose names do not appear. It cannot be said whether music would suffer most by the loss of those who teach it, those who write it, those who perform it, or those who conduct the performance. No enquiry dealing with musicians can be of value if it is not comprehensive, if it deals with one category of the profession only, and if it does not devote equal attention to all those who live by music and by whom music lives.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which concerns itself with the future of the civilisation of mankind, was struck with the importance of music in modern social life and with the various dangers by which it is threatened. The International Labour Office, on its side, concerns itself with all categories of workers, and therefore cannot remain indifferent to the difficulties with which musicians in the various countries are faced. It is from these two points of view that the present report is drawn up.

If it be permissible for the International Labour Office to deduce a conclusion from the investigations which have been undertaken, it might be said that this conclusion is such as might have been expected. The material living conditions of individuals and the state of civilisation as a whole are two phenomena between which there is the closest connection. As soon

as any branch of music, such, for example, as religious music, ceases to provide a living for those who practise it, it ceases to be composed, the number of performers diminishes, and the branch of music itself falls into decline. Difficulties in the food situation of a nation have some obscure effect on the fertility of talent. Persons who are overworked and underfed produce little work, and that of poor quality. Again, musicians suffer in those countries where music, or certain particular forms of music, are not regarded with enthusiasm. It would be impossible to obtain any profound knowledge of the tendencies of the art of music, its development, its future possibilities, and the assistance which it requires, if the material conditions of life of those who practise it were left out of account. A single genius may flourish in spite of poverty, but art as a whole, which needs not only individuals of genius but also a large number of performers and a well-instructed public, cannot develop in a society where poverty is general.

II. — GERMANY

It is impossible to understand the position of musicians, or indeed of any other category of workers, without being acquainted with the general situation in the country in which they live. Individuals can have no real prosperity in a ruined country, while on the other hand poverty receives some alleviation from national prosperity.

It is not possible in the present report to give a complete and detailed account of economic conditions in Germany. It should, however, be pointed out that the observations embodied in the report were made in the second half of January. Since that time the position has not essentially changed, although the figures quoted must have altered considerably and certain conditions have become still worse.

It is difficult to illustrate the economic position of the workers in Germany by means of figures, because the figures are constantly changing; it is therefore necessary to explain such figures as are given by comparing them with the pre-war purchasing power of the mark.

The cost of living in Germany round about January 15th, 1923, was generally estimated at one thousand times higher than in 1914. At the beginning of the period in question, however, the dollar was worth eight thousand marks, while ten days later the exchange rate was fortyfive thousand marks and is now one hundred and fifty thousand. The fall of the mark and the rise in prices show that during the period from January 15th to 31st, 1923, the cost of living in Germany rose to such an extent as to cause serious distress among workers who, like the majority of musicians, received their salary for the ensuing fortnight on January 15th. The same situation has since recurred every month.

In countries where such unstable economic conditions prevail, the persons who are most severely affected are those who have neither a fixed wage nor commodities to sell. The price of commodities automatically rises in proportion to the cost of living; wages and salaries are adapted to the cost of living by a sliding scale, and thus also follow the curve of prices, although they lag somewhat behind it. But persons who have neither commodities to sell nor a fixed rate of pay have no way of adapting themselves to price changes except by speculation, and they are usually the first to feel the effects of the economic crisis.

Such is the situation of the majority of musicians. Some of them, of course, are in the employ of the State, while others are members of organisations which are sufficiently strong to compel their employers to adapt their wages to the changed conditions without too much delay. Many of them, however, are independent workers and have no protection against hard times.

Even in countries where the nation is profoundly imbued with the love of music, it remains a luxury industry which, though necessary to the community as a whole, is not necessary to individuals. It is therefore liable to suffer from all the restrictions imposed by circumstances.

Germany has for so long been one of the countries in which music is most highly developed that its present position must necessarily attract special attention. German conceptions of music, German composers, the musical forms which they have created and their modes of expression have for several hundred years dominated the musical aspirations of our civilisation. It is impossible to foretell what will become of the pre-eminence of Germany in music. In the opinion of the most independent critics, however, including the Germans themselves, that this pre-eminence is in danger, and this is such an important phenomenon that some investigation of its causes is necessary. We cannot of course suppose that they are exclusively economic in character; but a study of the material situation of German musicians may nevertheless constitute a not unimportant contribution to a study of the tendencies and future development of European music.

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The following pages deal with the conditions of admission to the musical profession, the situation of public performers and composers, and the situation of musicians in general.

A. The Teaching of Music.

There are few European countries in which the teaching of music is more widespread and more popular than in Germany. Singing and the sol-fa system are carefully taught in the State schools, and every child is given an opportunity to train and develop its love of music. Many subsequently engage in a musical career, either as amateurs or as professionals.

At the present time, however, economic and political circumstances place unprecedented difficulties in the way of the musical education of the masses. The class of society from which most of the pupils of the music schools were derived has been decimated. Middle-class families are so much occupied with the ever-recurring problem of how to live, which is constantly assuming new forms, that they are no longer able to give their children a musical education. It is here that the predominance of material necessities produces its most noticeable effects. Even the children are too busy to spend time on accomplishments, especially the girls, who have to do the housework now that their families cannot afford servants. Music, which is, whether rightly or wrongly, regarded as a luxury, requires leisure. Leisure again requires capital. The acquirement of capital is, however, impossible in a country where money has fallen to one twenty-thousandth of its former value.

Music cannot be performed without an instrument; and in January a piano or harp cost from three to six million marks, a violin or a flute one hundred thousand marks, and so on. Manufacturers were no longer willing to lend instruments to talented young performers. To hire a piano cost twenty thousand marks a month, and even so it was almost impossible to obtain a piano on hire as the manufacturers found that the cost of upkeep and repairs was so high as to make the hire of instruments unprofitable.

The musicians' organisations attempted to induce the Government to prohibit the export of second-hand instruments, especially those which were sold in large numbers by former members of military bands. The attempt was, however, unsuccessful, and as such instruments fetch a much higher price in foreign countries than in Germany, they continue to leave the country. Again, the purchase of music and the upkeep of instruments required very considerable sums.

If the prices mentioned above are converted into gold they may appear very moderate. The middle-classes, however, have no reserve capital left. Any savings which they had accumulated in the past are by now exhausted. Wages and salaries scarcely keep up with the rising cost of living, and it is generally impossible to save on them. The prices in question are, therefore, beyond the reach of the majority of the population, or at any rate of that part which is traditionally most interested in music.

It is only by efforts which are often little short of heroic that young students are still able to take up a musical career. The position of the university students is well known, and that of the students at the conservatoires is no better. Many of them are obliged to support themselves by manual work. It is estimated that nearly 20 per cent. of the total number of students work the eight-hour day of the manual worker and study music at night. Others earn their living by night work. As soon as they have attained a certain degree of skill with their instruments they take posts in cafés or dancing halls. As they are too young for work of this kind, they almost always lose their artistic skill and often injure their health and sometimes their morals. Most of these young students are underfed, and they soon feel the effects of over-work. The resulting physical depression does not fail to produce its effect on their artistic work.

The difficulties of the community further contribute to those of the individuals. Germany has always been a decentralised country. Each petty ruler, each court and each town had its own institutions and was proud of them, and each was anxious for artistic renown.

One of the most curious of these institutions was the *Stadtptfeiferei* of the towns of Saxony. This was a guild of musicians which had certain ancient privileges handed down from the Middle Ages, such as the right of playing at public ceremonies. Each little town had a *Stadtptfeiferei*, which was the centre of the artistic aspirations of the district. This institution has, however, almost everywhere been swept away by the war. In some towns its place has been taken by the *Musiklehre*. This is a kind of musical apprenticeship lasting from three to five years under the direction of the *Stadtmusikus*. The apprentices receive board and lodging from their master at a fixed price, and in exchange they are required to help him without pay. This system often results in the exploitation of the apprentices, and it is therefore strongly opposed by the *Deutscher Musikerverband*. The Musicians' Union hopes to obtain the abolition of the system, which, it considers, is not adapted for the training of instrumental players of real artistic quality (1).

The consequences of the war have in the same way led to the disappearance of the regimental bands. These were real training-grounds for musicians, and many of the performers in time became teachers of music. A number of the theatres and conservatoires maintained by the petty rulers of Central Germany and by municipalities anxious to maintain their traditions have suffered the same fate. The Danzig Conservatoire, which had 1,600 pupils, and the Hagen Conservatoire, which had 1,200, have both been closed. The conservatoires of Rhenish Westphalia have also stated that they will soon have to close unless the State is able to come to their assistance.

In spite of these difficult conditions, the Federal Government is making great efforts to promote musical education.

In addition to schools of music subsidised by the municipal authorities, the following institutions are maintained by the State :

1. The Staatliche Akademische Hochschule für Musik, at Berlin;
2. The Akademisches Institut für Kirchen-und Schulmusik, at Berlin;
3. The Staatliche Musikschule, at Weimar;
4. The Akademie der Tonkunst, at Munich;
5. The Staatliche Musikschule, at Würzburg.

The Dresden Conservatoire and the Hochschule der Musik at Stuttgart are supported by the States of Saxony and Würtemberg.

(1) In its reply to the questionnaire of the International Labour Office, the *Musikerverband* expressed its views on this matter as follows :

The *Musiklehren* have their origin in the ancient *Stadtptfeifereien* of the Middle Ages, in which the *Stadtmusikus* or *Stadtptfeifer* (town musician) was aided by several assistants but also trained apprentices. These institutions only conserved their value as long as the *Stadtmusikus* and his men were required to execute all kinds of music, not only church music but incidental music (dances and marches). They ceased to serve as a means of education from the time when artistic music became the preserve of a new class of musicians which grew up in the large towns, and when the *Stadtptfeifereien* took to playing nothing but incidental music. This change was a slow process, retarded by the fact that during the latter half of the XIXth century the *Stadtptfeifereien* used to train lads for the military bands. The inferior products of this training could usually find employment in the bands, and could often, during military service, get an opportunity of improving themselves by study. At the present time the *Musiklehren* find little occasion for performing; they have degenerated in every way during the last few decades and have become wholly unsuited for training young musicians. At the end of their apprenticeship the pupils who are thrown on the labour market with quite insufficient qualifications cannot obtain a living wage as musicians and are obliged to carry on a secondary trade. In this respect the *Musiklehren* constitute a most serious social evil.

Apprenticeship lasts from three to five years. Apprentices usually receive board and lodging from the master, and in return they pay an apprenticeship fee and give the master their services as musicians for nothing. There exist neither programme of studies nor regular inspection nor suitably graduated examinations. It is only quite recently that the State governments have begun to consider the question of regulating conditions of apprenticeship.

A certain amount of general education and some knowledge of music are required for admission to these institutions. They are intended principally for the training of professional musicians, but there are some classes reserved for amateurs. The Akademisches Institut für Kirchen- und Schulmusik trains organists, choir-masters, and teachers of singing for schools. The "Meisterklassen" of the Akademie der Tonkunst for composition, the violin and the piano give the pupils an opportunity of completing their education under masters such as Busoni, Pfitzner, and Georg Schumann.

Most of the German universities have courses in the history of music, and students can obtain the title of doctor by a thesis on the theory of music. Instruction of this kind is intended as a training for university professors, librarians of conservatoires and theatres, orchestral conductors, musical critics, etc.

The position of these, as of all other students, is extremely difficult. Everything they require is excessively expensive : fees, books, music, concerts, etc. The scholarships have lost almost all their value now that the revenues of the old foundations are so much reduced.

Private musical schools, which have to be managed on a financial basis, are in an even more precarious situation. According to the *Musical Directory*, there are more than sixty such institutions in Berlin. They have not been able to raise their fees in proportion to the increased cost of living, as, if they had done so, they would have lost all their pupils. The fees are generally round about 3,000 marks a month, which is equivalent to 3 pre-war marks. The most efficient of the private conservatoires, such as those of Stern and Klindworth-Scharwenka in Berlin, have only been able to exist by attracting foreign pupils who can pay higher fees than German pupils, and by reducing the salaries of the instructors to the lowest possible limit.

Generally speaking, these musical schools train solo performers and teachers but not many orchestral players, except a few violinists and 'cellists. The Conservatoires of Weimar and Würzburg, however, were specially instituted for orchestral players, and although they had to some extent neglected this work they are now returning to it more and more. Most of the other institutions seem to forget that the orchestra is the most important resource of the majority of musicians. In almost all countries the schools only train solo performers, although the real function of the professional musician is orchestral playing, which requires different qualifications and a different training. In order to counteract this tendency, the *Musikerverband* has instituted a school of music which is attached to the Conservatoire and which is specially intended for the sons of musicians. This school, which has succeeded in maintaining itself in spite of the difficult situation, devotes particular attention to teaching the playing of certain instruments required by orchestras, which had been almost entirely neglected. Schools of the same type are to be instituted at Cologne, Frankfurt, Kiel, Leipzig, Weimar, and Stuttgart.

Some theatres maintain free classes for choral singing and ballet dancing.

In addition to the above-mentioned well-known institutions, which provide adequate instruction, there are all over the country a large number of schools of music the artistic value and even the commercial honesty of which cannot be exactly estimated. The musicians' organisations and the Government ⁽¹⁾ have repeatedly undertaken enquiries in order to ascertain the number and the value of certain schools of music which are known only by their advertisements. These enquiries have never produced any decisive result. The campaign conducted by the musicians' organisations against the private schools of music has not been as successful as was hoped. There are a large number of institutions which profess to give a musical education, but which really aim only at selling instruments to their pupils; when the pupils have bought the necessary instrument, generally at an excessively high price, they receive a certain amount of class teaching of poor quality for a few weeks or months and they are then discharged on the pretext of lack of capacity.

(1) Cf. *Verordnung betr. Staatl. Aufsicht im Privatmusikunterricht*, May 3rd, 1922.

There are so many and such various institutions in Germany for the teaching of music that the diplomas which they grant are naturally of unequal value. Most of them, even those conferred by the State schools, are of little practical use. A special examination is required for appointment as professor at a public conservatoire, and the directors of the most important private conservatoires have come to an agreement among themselves as regards the qualifications to be required of their instructors.

All the difficulties which have been mentioned above exercise their influence on private teachers of music. There is no class of individuals in Germany at the present time which is more precariously situated. The number of teachers of music has immensely increased, as the numerous amateurs who formerly had private means are now trying to earn their living by making use of their only accomplishment. The number of pupils, on the other hand, has decreased, and the balance of supply and demand, which was already extremely unstable, has been completely upset. Teachers of music, except a few famous performers of European reputation who only teach foreign pupils and are paid in dollars or pounds sterling, have been obliged to reduce their prices.

In January 1923 the *Musikpädagogische Verbande* attempted to fix standard fees for their members. The charge was 400 marks per hour, which, on the basis of the cost-of-living index number, represented about 40 to 50 pf. in pre-war money. Even this figure, however, is a purely theoretical standard; very few music teachers, especially singing and piano teachers, can obtain as much. Most of them are glad to give lessons at 100 or 200 marks an hour; some even accept as little as 50 or 60 marks, which is equivalent to 5 pf. in 1914. Most of them have sold their instruments in order to maintain themselves for a short time. The distances are great, the tram fare is 100 marks, and they can only give a few lessons every day. Thus there are persons supporting themselves by music who earn an amount equal in purchasing power to about 20 to 30 pf. a day in pre-war money.

In many cases it has become customary to pay for music lessons in kind. Many people, when they receive their salaries at the beginning of the month, buy non-perishable articles in order to avoid a subsequent rise in price. They therefore prefer to pay for their lessons in such commodities, and this is equally advantageous for the teachers of music.

The importance of so wide-spread a crisis among teachers of music does not consist merely in the individual suffering involved. The supply of recruits to the profession as a whole is endangered, and it will be seen that even although this aspect of the question is not yet urgent it is already attracting the attention of far-seeing persons.

B. Solo Performers and Composers.

The economic crisis has produced yet another effect upon musical affairs. The audiences at concerts have become smaller and have changed in character. Most of the persons who used to attend concerts are no longer able to afford the expense. Their places have not been filled, or have only been filled to a certain extent by foreigners and by the newly-rich, *i. e.* by a smaller and less cultivated public.

These social changes have produced the most serious effects in the provinces where there are very few foreigners. Germany is an extremely decentralised country from the artistic point of view. It used to be customary in almost all towns for societies of amateurs to organise concerts and to invite performers who had not yet made their name and who thus had an opportunity of attracting public attention and becoming known. Performers of this kind seldom came to Berlin or other large towns, and when they did come they received more criticism than praise. Most of these provincial societies of amateurs have disappeared. The number of persons interested in music has been greatly reduced. The receipts are no longer sufficient to pay for the expenses of concerts, and fares and hotel charges are so high that it is almost impossible to invite performers from other towns. Beginners are therefore placed in a much more difficult position, and artistic activity is tending to be concentrated in the large towns.

In Berlin the number of concerts has not decreased, but with a few notable exceptions they are no longer attended by Germans.

Before the war the usual price of a seat was 3 gold marks; if the corresponding price were charged at the present time the hall would be empty. In January 1923, concert managers did not venture to charge more than 400 or 500 marks for a seat, which corresponded to 50 pf. in pre-war money. As much as 800 marks might be charged for a concert which offers exceptional attractions; but if the seats cost 1,000 marks—the experiment has been tried—the public ceased to attend. Considerably higher prices are charged by the theatres, but Germans, Austrians and Hungarians can obtain considerable reductions on presentation of their passport.

The expenses have increased in far higher proportions. The cost of a hall before the war was 50 marks; last December it was 5,000 marks and in January 40,000. This was largely due to the increase in the price of coal. During the six weeks required for organising a concert, the cost of advertisements in the papers, posters, the printing of the programmes, and the hire of the hall is liable to be multiplied three or four times. Out of 649 concerts organised in 1922 by one of the principal musical agencies of Berlin, 567 resulted in a considerable loss; only 82 produced a profit, and even this was generally very small. Only performers with a great reputation can hope to make their expenses.

The average cost of a symphony concert is 1 million marks, half of which is required for the orchestra. The hall of the "Philharmonic" brings in about 300 thousand marks if it is completely full. The *Singakademie* has 300 seats at 500 marks. Thus any person who organises a symphony concert is faced with an almost certain loss of 700 or 800 thousand marks.

Before the war a performer making his first appearance could at any rate fill the hall by giving away complimentary tickets. At the present time it is not sufficient to give away tickets, for the tram fare costs 100 marks, the programme 80 marks, and the cloak-room fee 50 marks; thus the evening's expenses for two persons amount to at least 500 marks.

If these figures are reckoned in their gold value at the exchange rate they may not appear high; they are, nevertheless, quite beyond the reach of most of the German population. The musical life of the country is therefore entirely dominated by foreigners. As was shown above, they are almost the sole resource of the music teachers and music schools. They are also almost the only persons who give concerts. It is a singular change of circumstances that the Germans, who used to supply the whole world with musicians, are now driven off the field in their own country; for an American, an Englishman, a Scandinavian, or a Swiss to give a concert in Berlin is an inexpensive luxury; for a German it is an impossibility.

Although the Germans themselves deplore the position in which they are placed, they are far from complaining of the predominance of foreigners, for they know that without them German music would be in an even more serious position than it is at present.

The change in the social character of the musical public is as serious for the composers as it is for the performers. The present-day public wishes to hear classical works with which it is as yet unacquainted and is not interested in modern music. If the number of new works in a concert programme goes beyond the extremely small proportion which the public is prepared to tolerate, the hall remains empty.

Again, the expense of printing or copying orchestral scores is now so high that few publishers would undertake them and few orchestras would be willing to pay for them.

The *Singakademie*, which used to pride itself on performing modern choral works, can no longer obtain the necessary parts. The orchestras are in a still worse situation. If composers wish to have their works performed, they have to provide the score required by the orchestra; this, however, is quite impossible, as the publication of an ordinary piano piece costs as much as a million marks.

In other countries the expenses of publication are at any rate compensated for by the royalties. In Germany, royalties have only been very slightly increased in view of the depreciation of the currency. The Federal Court, by a decision which constitutes a precedent for contracts of all kinds, has refused to take into account changes in the value of money. Written contracts are to be literally maintained. The contracts of the *Genossenschaft Deutscher Tonsetzer* which,

under a decree dated April 7th, 1904, deals with the collection of royalties, are concluded for the whole year and cannot be modified during the year except in special cases. The royalties are thus fixed for the whole year on the basis of the cost of living in December of the preceding year. Between December 1921 and December 1922 the cost of living in Germany increased in the proportion of 1 : 60 or 1 : 80; the value of the royalties has thus decreased in the same proportion.

It should be added that as the pre-war contracts with the companies responsible for collecting royalties in France and Great Britain have been broken off, a large number of foreign works may be performed in Germany without payment. These works thus compete with native productions. An attempt was made to restore the contracts between the companies, and a congress was held in Berlin at which the French company was represented. The attempts were, however, unsuccessful owing to the existence of two German societies (the second being the G. E. M. A. *Genossenschaft zur Verwertung musikalischer Anführungsrechte*) which are not in agreement.

Even before the war, foreign music was more frequently performed in Germany than modern German music abroad. The *Genossenschaft Deutscher Tonsetzer* paid 170 thousand marks to the foreign companies and only received 40 thousand. At the present time a similar calculation is not possible, but the proportion of foreign works performed in Germany is doubtless increasing while, on the other hand, the gold value of the royalties paid outside Germany has decreased.

In practice, German composers in 1922 did not receive more than three times the royalties they received in 1913, although the purchasing power of money is one thousand times less. One composer stated that before the war he received 3,000 a year and that last year he received 10,000. Before the war, however, he could live comfortably on 10,000 marks in a villa which now costs him one and a half million for the heating alone.

C. Concerted Music.

All the most important musical institutions of Germany have suffered to a greater or less extent from the economic crisis. Most of the court and municipal theatres, in which the strong local feeling of the German towns had maintained a vigorous artistic activity, now require considerable subsidies. If all expenditure on display and entertainment has to be cut off, many of them will be unable to continue to exist. Already one of the oldest theatres of Germany, the Mannheim Opera House, is in danger.

The Berlin Opera House has only been able to maintain its artistic level at the cost of heavy sacrifices, both on the part of the State and of individuals. Even so, economies have had to be effected on the ballet, and all unnecessary staff has been dispensed with. The Opera used in former times to pay its "star" performers almost more generously than any similar institution; they received 30,000, 40,000, and sometimes even 90,000 marks a year. At the present time the highest salaries are 4-5,000,000, or about 4-5,000 marks reckoned according to purchasing power, and 1,000 Swiss francs at the rate of exchange. In order to retain the services of these artists, many of whom have a world-wide reputation, the Opera is obliged to allow them six months leave in the year so that they can go to America and earn sufficient to support themselves. If the financial difficulties of the Berlin Opera House become too great, there is talk of transforming it into a private company with American capital.

A characteristic German institution which is now involved in very serious difficulties is the *Volksbühne*, a workers' co-operative society which organises symphony concerts in a large hall in one of the working-class quarters of Berlin. In spite of the disinterested help given by the performers, it is becoming more and more difficult to maintain an institution of this kind intended to encourage the love of music among the poorer classes. The People's Opera, an institution with somewhat similar aims, appears to be in a more favourable financial position.

Germany is, of course, famous for its choral singing. The mixed choirs have done much to add to the musical renown of the country. The choirs consist of amateurs, and they now find it hard to keep up their numbers owing to the difficulties in which their members are involved by high fares, the necessity of working longer hours, underfeeding, the cost of clothes, and so on. The choral societies themselves used to be maintained by the proceeds of their concerts; now they cannot buy new music, and from the artistic point of view they are obliged to subsist on traditions which they cannot renew.

The orchestras are in an even more precarious situation, because their members are professionals and must be provided with at least a minimum sufficient for their maintenance.

Symphony orchestras in Germany, as elsewhere, are generally instituted on a co-operative basis. But while the musicians' co-operative associations of London and Paris only their members pay a supplementary salary, performers in the great orchestras of Berlin have to obtain their whole income from this source, as they have no other occupation and cannot even give lessons. German orchestral performers are overworked to an extent which baffles description. Every day they have two rehearsals and a concert. On Sundays they have one rehearsal and two concerts. Throughout the year they have no free Sundays and no holidays. Generally they are only able to have a cold meal between two periods of duty, and even such meals as they have are of bad quality.

In spite of this the orchestras are struggling against difficulties. Those which have a world-wide reputation, like the Philharmonic Orchestra, are able to maintain themselves by means of abroad engagements or by engagements received from foreigners in Berlin. Not all orchestras, however, are so favourably situated. The Blüthner Orchestra of Berlin, for instance, has been subsisting for several months on the extremely small proceeds of a tour last year in the Scandinavian countries.

The Philharmonic Orchestra has 55 members and 75 performers, 20 of whom are employees paid at the rates fixed by the musicians' organisations. Until 1912 the orchestra used to spend every summer at Scheveningen, in Holland. In that year the City of Berlin offered it a grant of 60,000 marks if it would perform in the capital during the summer season. The grant was raised in 1918 to 125,000 marks, and in 1922 to 300,000. An additional subsidy of 700,000 marks was paid in the course of the same year. The resulting figure of 1,000,000 marks represents a pre-war value of 1,000 marks, as compared with the former grant of 60,000. The orchestra has several times asked the Government to grant its members the same privileges as State employees, but this request has not been acceded to, and the existence of the orchestra is dependent on a few rich patrons who have constituted a committee for its support.

At the beginning of last year's summer holidays, the orchestra was completely without funds to pay the musicians. Fortunately, several donors came forward with sufficient sums to maintain them during the summer. It is, of course, impossible, however, to draw up either a collective or an individual budget in such conditions as these.

Before the war each performer earned on an average 200 marks a month. For some posts, such as that of conductor, additional allowances of 25 to 50 marks were paid. When the orchestra engaged a famous conductor, such as Nikisch, he was paid separately.

Last November the musicians' salaries for December were fixed at 40,000 marks. As a matter of fact, it became necessary to pay them 70,000. On January 15th, 1923, the musicians received 50,000 marks, which represented a fortnight's salary. Five days later the cost of living had doubled. The additional allowances have not been altered since the end of the war, except that of the conductor, which is 2,000 marks, *i. e.* 2 marks at pre-war value.

On this salary, which represents about 25 per cent. of what they received before the war, the musicians are obliged to keep their instruments in working order. To take one example: a cello string cost 4,000 marks last January. To replace worn-out instruments was, of course, an impossibility. What is true of the instruments is also true of the men. The orchestras have ceased to receive new members. Before the war the members of the orchestra had a pensions fund from which they obtained a pension of 2,500 marks after 40 years' work in the orchestra. The fund still exists, but it is not now sufficient to provide pensions for old musicians. It must

be remembered that as the performers in the orchestra are their own employers they are not included in the State insurance system.

As the members of the orchestra become older they find few new recruits to take their place. Before the war the military bands provided a preliminary training for orchestral work, at any rate in respect of certain wind instruments. The bands have ceased to exist, their members have become employees of the State, they have sold their instruments and have given up music. The conservatoires are not equipped for the training of orchestral players, which they have never undertaken, and it thus follows that for the time being no new performers in certain special kinds of orchestral work are being trained.

In spite of their hard work and low salaries, co-operative orchestras could not provide for the support of their members if they did not accept private engagements. They are obliged to play under any conductor, no matter how inexperienced, who offers them an engagement. At the present rate of exchange any foreigner who has a musical whim to satisfy can conduct the Philharmonic Orchestra, and the succession of conductors of unequal quality is, of course, unfavourable to the artistic value of the performances.

One typical example may be given to show the distress under which the orchestras are suffering. One of the clarinettists of the Berlin Opera House one day went to the director and told him that he wished to go to America. The director replied that he could not give him leave and that he would be unwise to break a contract in virtue of which he was a State employee. "I shall be obliged to do so", replied the musician, "for in a year's time I shall be unable to play the clarinet and the dentist charges 250,000 marks for the treatment which my teeth require".

In Germany the various posts which a musician can hold are much less readily interchangeable than in other countries, and specialisation is much more rigid. In Paris it is not uncommon for a musician to play in a symphony orchestra in the afternoon, in a theatre in the evening, and in a café at night. This would be impossible in Berlin, because all the concerts are held in the evening at the same time as the theatrical and cinema performances. Each category of musician must, therefore, be considered separately.

After the Revolution, musicians in theatres which receive a public subsidy obtained complete equality of treatment with State employees. Before the war, very few were in the position of State employees, which is an advantageous one, as it entails, among other privileges, automatic salary increases, pensions, etc. Although, however, the position of these musicians has become more secure, it is less satisfactory in other ways. The musicians of the Opera House used to be paid from 175 to 250 marks a month, which in January 1923 would be equivalent to 175,000 to 250,000 marks, and in June to 2 1/2 millions to 4 millions. At present they belong to Categories V, VI and VII of the sliding scale of salaries, and they were paid 104,800, 112,500 and 123,600 marks in January, and 500,000 to 850,000 marks in June.

In cafés, cinemas, and private theatres the salaries paid in January ranged from 50,000 to 80,000 marks, which represents about 50 to 80 marks at pre-war value.

At the time of the Revolution some improvements in the conditions of work of these categories of musicians were obtained by the efforts of the *Deutscher Musikerverband*; since then, however, they are again beginning to deteriorate.

There are no special laws or regulations dealing with the conditions of work of musicians. Musicians come under the same regulations as all other workers, and these are of little avail for them as their work is of a special nature and is generally carried out at night. Such advantages as they are able to obtain must, therefore, be guaranteed by collective agreement. The value of collective agreements, however, depends upon the power of the organisations which concluded them and which see that they are applied. The power of the trade unions has greatly decreased on account of the difficult economic situation. Germany is a country where organisation is highly developed and musicians' unions are numerous. In spite of their number, however, or perhaps because of it, the musicians' organisations have not so far succeeded in obtaining uniform conditions of work throughout the country.

The model agreement of the *Musikerverband* includes the following clauses :

- Engagement by the year or by the season;
- One free day a week in theatres, and two free days a month in cafés;
- 4 to 6 hours work, and 8 hours on Sunday;
- Not more than 3 hours rehearsals;
- A fortnight to a month annual leave.

Some of these stipulations, such as the weekly rest-day, annual leave, etc., represent victories achieved owing to the Revolution. They are not, however, everywhere respected, and exceptions are often allowed by local collective agreements. It may also be mentioned that musicians often complain that they have no means of protecting their clothes against cloakroom thefts, which are becoming more frequent every day.

Employment for musicians is found either by the official employment exchanges (*Landesvermittlungsämtler*) or by the Central Office and local branches of the *Deutscher Musikerverband*. It is impossible to put a stop to the existence of "independent agencies" for musicians in certain cafés, but these are not of great importance to the profession as a whole. In the course of 1922 the *Deutscher Musikerverband* found engagements for 2,865 musicians in Germany, including 32 complete orchestras. It also concluded 29 contracts for foreign countries (Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Finland, Holland, Switzerland, Poland, Austria, Hungary, Serbia, Greece, Luxemburg, Roumania, Italy and South America [Santiago and Buenos Aires]). Every day, however, it is becoming more difficult for German musicians to emigrate. In the United States a musician must have resided in the country for six months before he is allowed to play in an orchestra, and the musicians' unions in all countries try to defend themselves against the immigration of German musicians, in spite of the efforts made by the German unions to restrain their members from accepting engagements at less than the union rates of the countries to which they go.

It is extremely difficult to determine with accuracy the amount of unemployment among musicians, because no reliable statistics have been collected and because unemployment generally assumes a disguised form.

In Germany there certainly exists unemployment among musicians. As a result of the prodigious depreciation of the currency, a large number of orchestras and bands have had unfortunately to be dispersed or considerably reduced, so that many musicians have found themselves without a livelihood and some of them have had to take up other work in factories, offices, and so on. As these former musicians continue, almost all of them, to play as a subsidiary occupation, they have a depressing influence on the market for the labour of musicians who live solely by their art.

There is also a certain amount of seasonal unemployment. Many theatres (operas, light operas, varieties) are not open all the year but only during the winter, from about the middle of September until the middle or end of April. A large number of cafés and other musical undertakings, such as concert orchestras, are only busy during the winter months, and in summer they greatly cut down their activity, if they do not suspend it altogether, so that at the end of the season many musicians are thrown out of work. Nevertheless, during the summer musicians have the chance of playing in bands at health resorts and watering places, and similarly in concerts given in the public parks, though these concerts are evidently much dependent upon weather conditions. As the concert season begins only in May at the spas and only in June at the seaside resorts, many musicians often have to face several weeks of unemployment during the transition from the winter to the summer season. Unemployment is less frequent at the other transition—from the summer to the winter season—although in this case also it often happens that musicians are unable on quitting one situation to enter another immediately.

In the absence of sustained enquiries and statistics it is not possible to determine the extent of unemployment among musicians or even the extent of seasonal unemployment only, especially as musicians who cannot find regular work accept chance engagements (marriages, balls,

celebrations) which bring them in a wage, little and uncertain though it be. It is true that this wage is often exceedingly low, especially in the case of players of wind instruments during the winter. It is no exaggeration that nearly half of the professional musicians must be considered as short-time workers; especially is this the case with so-called "free" musicians who have no other occupation than that afforded by chance engagements, and with a large number of musicians employed in cinematograph theatres.

What renders very difficult the exact measurement of unemployment is the fact that it often assumes a disguised form. Musicians belonging to the higher categories fall into lower categories and cause unemployment among the musicians already belonging to these categories. The latter musicians enter some other occupation or emigrate. They enter such occupations, however, as unskilled workers, and as they have no training they are generally destined to unemployment. It is estimated that about one half the total number of professional musicians have been compelled to support themselves by occupations entirely unconnected with their art. On the other hand, there are considerable numbers of amateurs who have left other occupations, as well as persons who formerly had a private income and are now ruined, and workers who attempt to add to their wages by engaging in the musical profession ⁽¹⁾. It has been ascertained by an enquiry undertaken by the *Musikerverband* that in 16 large towns the number of persons who tried to add to their income by means of music was 6,500. This figure, however, certainly falls short of the reality if the State employees and the numerous members of choral societies, musical clubs, and military bands are taken into account. In the Federal Debt Department in Berlin there are 500 officials who increase their incomes by music. In Breslau there are 900 such officials, in Chemnitz 200, in Hanover 500, and so on. In some towns the officials who supplement their income by means of music—many of them are former members of military bands—are as numerous, or even more numerous, than the professionals. They have an organisation of their own which is known as the *Verband der Musizierenden Beamten*.

A large part of the attention of the musicians' organisations is devoted to combating the competition of the members of military bands. The Decree of the Ministry of National Defence, dated July 8th, 1921, contains the following provisions on this point :

ART. IV. — Members of military bands who perform in public must conform to the rate of pay received by professional musicians in the same district. If a military band gives a performance, the average receipts after deduction of the expenses must be at least equal to the minimum rates of the local organisation. Performances at charitable concerts or funerals, if not ordered by the military authorities, must be paid at such rates. Members of military bands are forbidden to offer to play for less than such rates.

ART. VII. — In cases where professional musicians undertake a movement to obtain improved economic and social conditions, the members of military bands must remain entirely neutral and must abstain from any intervention in favour either of the employers or of the musicians.

These provisions, however, are not always respected in practice, and the military bands seriously compete with musicians in cafés and with small orchestras. These classes of musicians are also most affected by the regulations such as the prohibition of dancing, early closing of cafés, high taxes on public performances, etc., which are sometimes issued by the authorities without due consideration of their full social effect.

The position of professional chorus and ballet workers is not essentially different from that of theatrical orchestras. Unemployment is not very prevalent among these categories except in the summer, but competition is extremely severe, and this tends to lower the standard

(1) On this point see the publication entitled *Kulturvernichtende Schwarzarbeit*, Berlin, 1923.

of working conditions. The *Bühnenverein* has indeed actually been obliged to ask the Federal Government to restrict the hours of work for these workers to eight per day.

The conditions which chiefly give rise to complaint among musicians include the undefined nature of their legal position with regard to their employers, and the nature of their contract of employment. The consequence is that their relation to the labour legislation of the country is not clearly defined and that they suffer from the difficulties of the liberal professions as well as from those of manual workers.

D. Conclusion.

Fortunately, facts do not always wholly correspond to theory. The facts have been stated above as accurately as possible, and yet the picture of the situation which they give is somewhat exaggerated. In circumstances in which it would seem that individuals must necessarily perish, they somehow continue to exist. Their power of adaptation is stronger than circumstances. Institutions which are on the brink of ruin do not in fact disappear. Every moment it seems as if the bow has been overstretched and must break, but it will nevertheless stretch still further. The music teachers go hungry, but they do not die of hunger. The number of persons who are in a position to study music decreases, but the number of pupils in the conservatoires remains the same. Young performers of talent are unable to obtain instruments, but they nevertheless find opportunities of playing. Composers can obtain neither publishers, performers nor audience, but they still compose music. The theatres threaten to close their doors, and yet they keep them open.

It does not, of course, follow that this situation will still continue in future. All it means is that death comes less rapidly than is expected and that individuals possess an unsuspected reserve of resistance. As time goes on, however, the disasters which have not yet occurred may become a reality. It is obvious that orchestras do not become superannuated in a day; but every day they grow older. The influx of new members does not suddenly cease; but it slackens. How is it possible that the art of music should not suffer? Can it be hoped that composers should continue to write music for which there is no demand; that instruments will remain fit for use for ever without renovation; and that the intellectual power of the musicians will not in time be worn down by privation?

It is not part of the function of the present report to propose practical measures. There is, however, one point which must be mentioned because it is a statement of fact. The only means of saving German music, which is a collective possession of our civilisation, is to encourage exchange of performances between Germany and other countries. If a great orchestra makes a tour in a country where the exchange rate is high, it may obtain sufficient funds to last it for a year. The engagement of a performer or the purchase of a score may be the means of saving a man of talent. Such actions constitute practical international work, and they are the only means which can produce an immediate effect on the musical future of Germany.

III. — HUNGARY

The loss of territory which Hungary has undergone in consequence of the Treaty of Trianon has not exercised so profound an effect on the position of musicians as on that of other classes of workers. Even before the war the musical life of Hungary was almost entirely concentrated in Budapest. There were, it is true, a certain number of schools of music, including those at Pressburg, Kolosvar and Temesvar, and there was also a certain degree of musical activity at Agram. The majority of the best musicians, however, lived in Budapest. Musicians as a rule are not much interested in politics. The countries which have acquired territory formerly belonging to Hungary were not very well provided with musicians, especially good violinists, and they have been glad to accept those whom they found in the newly acquired districts. Most of the musicians in these districts have therefore not emigrated.

The break-up of the former Austria-Hungarian Empire has, however, exercised a more important effect by depriving Hungarian musicians of some of the opportunities for employment which used to be open to them. They are still welcomed in Vienna, but in Czechoslovakia hardly any Hungarian music is now performed, although in the past fairly close relations were maintained between Prague and Budapest. The division between Hungary and Czechoslovakia has also made it difficult for the orchestras of Budapest to recruit the performers they require, as Hungary produces very few wind instrument players and the Czechs specialise in these instruments.

The main cause of the critical situation of Hungarian music is a consequence of the war and of the Peace Treaties, but it is an indirect one. This cause is the rapid and continued deterioration of the currency, involving Hungarian musicians in difficulties somewhat similar to those which have been described in the case of Germany.

The policy of the Hungarian Government aims at restoring the value of the currency by keeping the cost of living as low as possible. It is therefore not inclined to favour an automatic increase in wages such as is practised in Austria, and wages and salaries have not risen in a proportion corresponding to the fluctuations of the exchange rate and the cost of living.

In its reply to the questionnaire of the International Labour Office, the Hungarian Government estimates the annual earnings of Hungarian musicians at about 600 to 800 Swiss francs. Since that time, however, the Hungarian exchange has fallen so rapidly that about a month later their earnings could only be estimated at 350 to 600 francs a year. The musicians declare that these sums only cover about 40 per cent of the necessities of life.

The above calculations, it must be admitted, are somewhat arbitrary in character, as Hungary, unlike Germany, publishes no official index numbers. This makes any estimate extremely difficult. The indications given above are, nevertheless, sufficient to show that there is a steady tendency for the real value of salaries to fall.

A. The Teaching of Music.

In Hungary no one is allowed to teach music in a public or private school unless he holds the State diploma conferred by the Royal Academy of Music at Budapest. This regulation has not hitherto been observed in the State elementary schools, where singing is generally taught by the ordinary teachers, who, as a rule, have no special musical knowledge. It is, however, proposed to reform this system and to provide musical training by skilled teachers in the State schools.

All teachers of music in establishments to which the public are admitted are required to hold the diploma of the Academy. This is an example in practice of a condition which is

generally demanded by teachers of music in all countries. The Royal Academy of Music is the centre of musical education, as no musician may give lessons in a school unless he has been trained by the Academy or has passed its examination.

This regulation also has the effect of giving the Academy the character of a training college for teachers rather than a school for purely artistic training. The Academy has instituted courses for teachers of music. Pupils who attend these classes must have obtained the first diploma of the Academy or the equivalent diploma conferred by the Conservatoire. The courses last for two years. In the first year the pupils receive theoretical instruction and in the second year, practical instruction. They give music lessons under the direction of a professor of the Academy, and for this purpose the Academy admits children to preparatory classes. Each pupil taking the training course teaches three pupils in the preparatory class. Children are admitted to the preparatory classes without special previous training and are simply tested for their hearing and musical capacity. The Academy gives instruction in the playing of all instruments. It is specially famous for the teaching of stringed instruments, particularly of the violin type. Since Hungary became independent, however, considerable efforts have been made by the Academy and the Conservatoire to train players of wind instruments, of whom there is a shortage in Hungary. Most of the pupils in the wind instrument classes are taken without fees; but it is nevertheless difficult to obtain a sufficient number of pupils, as most Hungarians prefer stringed instruments.

The number of pupils in the Academy varies from 600 to 800. The number nevertheless remains fairly stable, as the Academy always has more applications than it can receive. It acts as a regulator for the other schools by taking a larger or smaller proportion of their pupils. The number of foreign pupils at the Academy has decreased.

The fees are at present 8,000 kronen per year, which probably represents about a dozen kronen at pre-war value as far as it is possible to estimate without definite index numbers. Pupils of special merit may be taken without fees. There are scholarships, but they have entirely lost their value, and pupils no longer make the necessary effort to obtain them.

The professors of the Academy are State employees of rank equivalent to that of university professors. Their salaries range from 80,000 to 100,000 kronen per month (110 to 135 kronen at gold value). In addition to this they enjoy the usual material privileges of State employees. Every State employee receives the following quantities of goods per month :

1	kilo.	of fat
1	—	salt
1	—	sugar
1	—	finest flour
6	—	bread flour
4	—	ordinary flour

They also receive every year 10 quintals of coal, 10 quintals of wood, a suit of clothes and a pair of boots. These articles are not provided free of charge but at prices so low as to be almost negligible. Each pair of shoes, for example, costs 1,500 kronen (2 francs) and each metre of material 500 kronen (70 centimes). As each member of the employee's family is entitled to similar privileges, this constitutes an important increase in the salary of a married professor. This increase may be estimated at about 10,000 kronen per person per month. If the employees do not take the above-mentioned articles they receive State compensation at that rate.

The National Conservatoire is a private foundation instituted by Liszt in 1839. It has recently been placed under the authority of the State and has received the right to issue diplomas which confer the right of admission to the teachers' courses at the Academy. The number of pupils at the Conservatoire is falling rapidly. A few years ago it was over 2,000, but it decreased by about one-third every year and last year was only 800 or 900. This decrease is due to various causes. Some of them are connected with the modifications which are being introduced in the method of instruction in the Conservatoire. Another cause is that the fees are more than three times as high as at the Academy—26,000 kronen as compared with 8,000. The principal cause

is, however, the general decrease in the number of students owing to economic and social conditions and also to the loss of Hungarian territory. The Hungarian middle-classes—and by middle-classes are meant persons who possess even a small amount of capital acquired by saving—have, like the corresponding class in Germany, been severally affected by the economic crisis. Many families which used to be well-to-do are now unable to give their children a musical education, and the newly rich classes, which live in an unstable position, have not acquired the habit of doing so. The cost of instruments is an insuperable obstacle for many families which might perhaps manage to afford the fees. It is almost impossible for anybody to learn the piano if he does not already possess an instrument. Other instruments, such as the harp, have to be provided for the pupils by the Conservatoires, and orchestral classes are becoming increasingly difficult because instruments are no longer at the proper pitch, music-books are too expensive, and pupils cannot be obliged to attend rehearsals regularly.

Teachers of music at the Conservatoire are much less favourably situated than those at the Academy. As the Conservatoire does not receive a Government grant, the salaries of the staff are based entirely on the receipts, and a large part of these is absorbed by the upkeep of the instruments and the purchase of music. The Conservatoire, like the Academy, also makes great sacrifices in order to give free instruction in the playing of wind instruments, as this is regarded as a question of national interest. These considerations explain why last year the 18-hours lessons generally given by teachers of the Conservatoire only brought in 10,000 to 15,000 kronen per month (15 to 25 francs). To this must be added the grants in kind which the professors have received since the Conservatoire was placed under Government control. These, as was stated above, represent an average of 15 francs per month for each member of the family.

The charge for an hour's lesson, according to the above salary, works out at about 500 kronen (70 centimes), but persons who hold the title of professor at the Conservatoire are able to earn more by private lessons.

The Conservatoire gives a large number of concerts at which its pupils perform, and makes great efforts for the teaching of orchestral music.

The other private schools of music in Hungary number 94. Of these the five or six schools in Budapest are the most important. All the schools complain that the number of their pupils has fallen by about two-thirds in the last year. The schools made a mutual undertaking not to let the fees fall below 80 gold kronen, but it would appear that this agreement has not been observed.

Private teaching is entirely free and is subject to no limitation. Teachers do not require the diploma of the Academy.

Under the rule of the Communist Government, when everyone had to be registered in a trade union, the Association of Music Teachers, which has since ceased to maintain an active existence, had over 500 members. This probably represents approximately the number of music teachers in Budapest.

The most eminent teachers of music have adopted the custom of fixing the prices of their lessons in *Weizenvaluta*, i.e. in some stable value such as cereals or gold. Under this system their income increases in proportion to the depression of the currency and more rapidly than the cost of living. Their fees for an hour's lesson are 5,000 to 6,000 kronen. Only a very few private teachers of music, however, can charge their fees in this way. The others have tried to fix a minimum fee of 2,500 kronen, but in vain; this figure could not be maintained. The average fee for a lesson is not more than 1,000 to 2,000 kronen, and many teachers give lessons at 400 to 500 kronen (60 to 70 cts.)

B. Solo Performers and Composers.

Budapest has two important opera houses : the Royal Opera and the People's Opera. Before the war only the Royal Opera was a State institution and received a subsidy of 700,000 kronen. At present the State also manages the People's Opera and the National Theatre. It

pays these three theatres a total subsidy of 140,000,000 kronen, which represents about 200,000 kronen in pre-war purchasing power and barely 100,000 kronen according to the exchange rate.

The prices of the seats vary in the different theatres. At the Royal Opera, which is the most expensive, a seat in a box costs 2,000 kronen (about 3 francs); a similar seat at the People's Opera costs 900 kronen (about 1 franc 50 centimes). In the last two years the receipts and expenditure have increased tenfold.

The position of performers is, of course, far less favourable than before the war. During the last season the star performers of the Royal Opera received 1,200,000 kronen per month, *i.e.* about 1,800 francs. Many of them therefore obtain engagements in over-seas countries. The language question is not so great an obstacle to emigration as might be imagined, for in the United States there are about 40 theatres which give a Magyar season.

The number of concerts has not decreased very greatly. More symphony concerts are given than in former years, as a new orchestra was instituted two years ago. Recitals have somewhat decreased, but not very greatly. A piano recital costs the organiser about 150,000 kronen. A performer with a large connection can make his expenses but cannot fill the hall, as no one is willing to accept complimentary tickets. The State charges a tax of 10 per cent on complimentary tickets as well as on others, and this represents a considerable expense. The cost of engaging the Philharmonic Orchestra is about 700,000 to 800,000 kronen.

The number of foreigners who give concerts at Budapest is decreasing. Well-known performers consider the receipts insufficient on account of the exchange rate, and beginners prefer to make their debut in larger towns.

Composers are in a difficult situation now that the territory of the country is so small. They have few opportunities of having their works performed in Hungary and still less of having them published. There are two or three publishing houses, but they dare not run the risk which is involved by publishing a modern work at the present time. There is only one music printing works, and most music must be printed and engraved abroad. The best-known Hungarian composers, such as Dohnany and Bartok, therefore publish their music abroad, principally in Vienna.

The organisation for the collection of royalties is still at a primitive stage. It was not until February 14th, 1922, that Hungary adhered to the Berne Convention. In former years royalties were collected through an Austrian company. This company has ceased to act for Hungary and no Hungarian company has as yet been set up. In practice there are no systematic arrangements for collecting royalties for the performance of orchestral music and short pieces; this depends entirely on the vigilance of the composers and their publishers.

C. Concerted Music.

As compulsory registration was enforced under the Communist Government, it is possible to obtain fairly exact figures of the number of musicians living at Budapest. The figures are as follows :

Orchestral musicians.	about	800
Cinema and café musicians.	»	1,400
Teachers of music.	»	500
Members of military bands.	»	250
Tziganes	»	1,600

The total number of persons who make their living by music in Budapest may therefore be estimated at about 4,500. The amount earned by musicians who play in the large theatres has been increased tenfold in the last two years. If their earnings are reckoned according to purchasing power, however, they have very greatly declined. Before the war a musician's salary ranged from 250 to 300 kr. Members of the orchestra of the Opera are now paid 70,000 to 90,000 kr. (100 to 135 gold kronen), and, in addition, the allowances in kind provided by the

State. The salaries paid at the People's Opera are the same but the allowances in kind are not given. The Opera also pays the whole of the cost of the purchase and upkeep of the instruments, and this represents a large saving for the musicians.

Conditions of work are the same in both orchestras which are covered by the same collective agreement. The agreement provides for one rehearsal and one performance per day, each lasting four hours, *i.e.* an 8-hour day. The musicians are free in the afternoon, and this enables them to teach at the Conservatoire or to give private lessons. Their engagement is for the whole year, and they receive their ordinary salaries during the two summer months when the opera-houses are closed. The agreements contain no provision relating to a weekly rest day, but this is generally allowed in practice—the operas only give performances on six days in the week—especially in the case of the strings, of whom there is a surplus.

The opera directors complain that their musicians are overworked, as they are obliged to do too much outside work in order to increase their inadequate salaries.

Each of the two Opera orchestras is also a society which gives concerts. The orchestra of the Royal Opera is called the Philharmonic Orchestra. It has 70 performers and gives 10 concerts per year on Monday evenings when the Opera is closed. It also gives 10 rehearsals to which the public is admitted, and five or six popular concerts at very low prices which are intended for the intellectual public which is unable to afford ordinary concerts. The profits of these 25 or 30 concerts are divided among the performers, and at the end of last season each one received 51,000 kr. (about 75 francs), *i.e.* 2.50 francs per concert.

The orchestra of the People's Opera gives performances under the name of the Symphony Orchestra. It has only been in existence for two years. It gives 10 matinée concerts in the opera-house itself. Each performance brings in about 15,000 kr. per performer. There are three or four rehearsals for each concert, and the management of the opera allows these to be deducted from the number of rehearsals which the Opera orchestra is obliged to attend without payment. The number of rehearsals cannot, however, be increased, and it is therefore impossible to perform very difficult works.

The concert public has altered in character, as in all countries in which there is a currency crisis. The change has not, however, affected the composition of the programmes.

The recruiting of orchestral players is not directly endangered, but difficulties are encountered in finding players of wind instruments and certain other instruments.

The number of foreign musicians has remained stable, as most of them have been settled in Hungary for a long time and have become completely assimilated. A small number of Czech instrumental players have, however, left the country and been replaced by Hungarians. The maintenance of the artistic standard of the orchestras is, however, rendered somewhat difficult by the great prevalence of emigration among Hungarian musicians, especially violinists and cellists. These performers can obtain very much higher pay in Scandinavia and America.

Owing to the prevalence of emigration there is little unemployment among Hungarian musicians. It was mentioned above that the contracts of operatic orchestra players provided for the payment of salaries during the summer. In operetta theatres and cinemas the musicians also receive pay during the summer in proportion to the length of time for which they have played in the orchestra. A few musicians who might otherwise be unemployed during the summer months find work at the summer resorts of Lake Balaton.

Musicians nevertheless complain of the competition of amateurs, Tziganes, and the members of military bands. If this does not cause unemployment, it at any rate tends to depress salaries. Many amateurs, particularly officials who have returned from the districts which no longer belong to Hungary, have formed orchestras which play in public gardens. There is also a large number of military bands in spite of the reduction in the size of the army. There are six such bands at Budapest, including one naval band [*sic*], and ten in the provinces. It is to the financial interest of the conductors of these bands to increase their size, and they are constantly obtaining new members, especially persons in receipt of State pensions. In principle, military bands are not supposed to accept private engagements at lower rates than professional musicians. It frequently happens, however, that such orchestras play under a

fictitious agreement at lower rates, and it is difficult to prevent this, as the Government does not allow them to belong to a musicians' organisation.

The Tziganes, who are regarded by the Hungarians as a sort of national institution, perform without receiving any fixed salary; their only remuneration is that which they collect from the public. The Tzigane bands generally consist of one or two strings, a clarinet and a cymbal. Some of them have considerable artistic merit in the performance of their national music. Most of the Tziganes cannot read music. The younger generation is, however, learning to do so, and each band generally includes one musician who can read music.

Hungary has no very great traditions as regards choral singing. There are, however, two important choirs in Budapest; one of them is a mixed and the other a women's choir. These choirs give concerts with an orchestra composed of members of the Philharmonic orchestra.

There are also choral societies in the provinces, but these are chiefly to be found in those districts where there is a Swabian population of Germanic origin.

When the symphony orchestras give performances with a choir the receipts are shared between the musicians and the singers. The professional chorus of the Opera is in a very unfavourable position and only receives about one-third of the amount paid to the members of the orchestra.

IV. — POLAND ⁽¹⁾

Many people imagine that Polish music begins and ends with Chopin. A genius, however, is never produced in a vacuum; he is always the outcome of tradition and environment; and Chopin, of course, had predecessors. Recently published works on the history of music show that Polish music has a long tradition behind it. Under the old régime it was closely connected with the Roman Catholic Church. Some of the kings, such as Sigismund the First and Ladislas the Fourth, were great patrons of music. The Cracow Academy of Science has published a collection of ten thousand folk tunes in twenty-two volumes.

It is often thought that Polish music has been more affected by Russian than by Western artistic tradition; but this is not the case. It has received influence from Italy, France, Germany, and the Netherlands, while on the other hand traces of Polish influence are to be found in the works of many Western composers.

During the nineteenth century the development of this ancient musical tradition was hindered by political circumstances. Even before the war, however, at the beginning of the twentieth century, a recovery began to take place. In 1910, a meeting of Polish musicians was held at Lemberg to celebrate the centenary of Chopin's birth, and the renaissance of Polish music dates from that occasion.

A great impetus was, of course, given to the renaissance of Polish music when the country recovered its independence, and the movement is now in full swing. The musical institutions of Poland, which previously had to be adapted to those of the countries to which the districts in question belonged, are in course of transformation. They attempt, in accordance with Polish musical tradition, to approximate as far as possible to musical conditions in Western Europe, but their efforts are impeded by the difficulties caused by the unfavourable Polish exchange rate.

A. The Teaching of Music.

In addition to the State Conservatoires of Warsaw and Posen, there are about twelve music schools maintained by associations or foundations and about twenty private schools in the following towns: Warsaw, Posen, Cracow, Lemberg, Lodz, Lublin, Stanislawow, Thorn, Vilna, Bialystok, Czestochowa, Grodno, Kalisz, Kielce, Radom, Przemysl and a few others of less importance. There is also an organ school at Plock. The musicians have asked the Government to set up schools of music in the principal towns of each province, but this demand has not so far been granted.

The professors in the State Conservatoires are divided into a number of salary classes. The fee for an hour's lesson is 12,000 marks in the first category and 24,000 in the fifth category, which is the highest. As the maximum number of lessons per day is fixed at six, this represents a maximum salary of three million marks per month. If it is assumed in accordance with the index number that the cost of living at this period was 8,000 times higher than before the war, the above-mentioned fees represent about 1.50 to 3 frs. per hour.

Pupils are required to pass a test of capacity before admission into the State schools. The fees are generally very low. There is an entrance fee of 10,000 marks and the fees for the term are 80,000 marks, *i.e.* not more than 10 Swiss francs. There are no travelling scholarships, and this results to some extent in artistic isolation for the present generation.

(1) This portion of the report is based on information supplied by Dr. Alice Simon and on the reply to the questionnaire of the International Labour Office received from M. Heintze, President of the Federation of Polish Musicians' Unions.

The State schools of music issue two kinds of diploma: a teaching diploma and a diploma of general capacity.

The private teachers of music have an organisation which is known as the Music Teachers Association. In 1922 this organisation fixed the minimum fees to be charged by private schools in accordance with the kind of lesson given at amounts ranging from 3,000 marks per hour for beginners to 7,500 marks for advanced lessons. These figures were doubled by a decision adopted in December 1922. Since then, they have undoubtedly increased to a large extent.

In private schools, lessons are paid for in advance. The contracts are fixed for a period of ten months, and one month's notice must be given. Fees which are in arrears must be paid at the rates fixed at the time when the contract was concluded. Lessons which have not been given through the fault of the teacher must be made up; if it was the pupil's fault that the lesson was not given, it must be paid for as if it had been given. Higher fees than those laid down in the scales of fees may be charged, and individual professors may charge special prices.

These conditions are generally observed in private schools of music but do not apply to private lessons not given in a school.

The theory of music is taught at the Universities of Cracow, Lemberg and Posen, and it is proposed to institute a similar course at the University of Warsaw. The musical works in the libraries have not, however, been completely classified, and owing to the exchange rate it is very difficult to obtain books or documents from foreign countries.

B. Solo Performers and Composers.

Polish musical activity is concentrated in a few principal towns. Warsaw, Lemberg and Posen have opera-houses, and there are also symphony orchestras in those towns. There is a small opera-house at Cracow.

There are large choral societies in Warsaw, Cracow, Lemberg, Posen and Vilna. The Warsaw Musical Society, which was founded in 1900, gives chamber concerts. Since that year extremely successful popular concerts have also been organised by the Polish Musicians Association. The average profits of each of these concerts are 900 thousand marks. The conservatoires also give concerts at which their pupils perform.

Very few of these institutions receive subsidies from the Government, and some of them are therefore unable to pay their orchestras during the summer. This results in a considerable amount of seasonal unemployment among musicians.

Musicians also complain of the lack of opportunities of hearing music in the provinces and have asked the Government to encourage the creation of orchestras in towns such as Lemberg, Cracow and Vilna.

As there is so little musical activity in Poland, except in the largest towns, Polish musicians have a tendency to leave the country. This tendency was, of course, more marked before the liberation of Poland than it is at present. There is, indeed, now a certain movement among musicians to return to the country. Many Polish musicians have, however, established themselves in foreign countries and are likely to remain there.

The composition and publishing of music encounters considerable difficulties. The arrangements for the collection of royalties are quite primitive, even from the legal point of view.

The orchestras are not able to devote sufficient time to the performance of Polish music, and intellectual and artistic communication with other countries is seriously hindered by financial difficulties. It is in particular extremely expensive to purchase foreign scores. The International Musical Association, which was founded at Salzburg in 1922, could give great assistance in this respect to countries with a low exchange rate.

C. Concerted Music.

Since 1913 there has been an improvement in the conditions of life of orchestral musicians as far as their security and their social position are concerned. It has, however, never been definitely decided whether musicians are to be regarded as manual or as intellectual workers,

and they are therefore constantly involved in discussions with their employers concerning the application of certain legislation such as insurance legislation, by which they consider that they ought to benefit. Generally speaking their conditions of work are regulated by collective agreements which they themselves conclude with their employers.

The collective agreements fix the hours of work, which are generally 4 1/2 hours in the evening, not including rehearsals, the total hours being 8 per day at most; the length of rehearsals and the cases in which they are to be paid for specially; the annual holidays, which are generally a month; the health conditions, especially the minimum temperature at which musicians are to be required to play, which is generally 13° C. ; and finally public holidays. The Act of May 16th, 1922, concerning holidays for manual and non-manual workers is generally applied to musicians.

Musicians do not come under any official insurance system, except the sickness insurance system; all other forms of insurance are purely voluntary. Most theatres have a pension fund for superannuated musicians, but the sums at the disposal of these funds and the amount of the benefits are extremely small.

The pay of musicians has been seriously affected by the financial crisis. Members of the orchestra of the Warsaw theatre receive 1,500,000 to 2 million marks, which corresponds, according to the cost of living, to about 150 to 200 francs at pre-war value. In the provincial theatres the salaries paid are not more than half the above, though there is great variation in the different towns. All the salaries are liable to rapid modification in accordance with the cost-of-living index number.

A large part of the salary of the musician is absorbed by the purchase and upkeep of musical instruments, all of which are imported and have to be paid for at the price on the world market, which is extremely high when reckoned in Polish currency. The musicians estimate that at least 10 or 15 per cent. of their salary is absorbed by expenditure of this kind.

Appointments are found for musicians by their organisations, by the schools of music, and by the Fraternal Aid Society. Between June 1st and November 1st, 1922, the employment agency of the Musicians Union at Warsaw found appointments for 191 of its members.

There is a considerable amount of unemployment in Poland. The musicians estimate that 15 to 20 per cent. of the total number of organised musicians are now out of employment owing to the critical situation of the public and private musical institutions. Much of the unemployment is seasonal in character and is due to the closing of the theatres in summer. There is also serious competition from military bands in watering places, restaurants, and open-air places of entertainment. Military bands generally play for a lower fee than professional musicians, and it is estimated that a thousand families suffer as the result of this competition. Players of wind instruments are, of course, most seriously affected. Unemployment during the summer is still more serious among teachers of music, and the Musicians Union estimates that not more than 30 per cent of its members are able to support themselves entirely by their art. Amateur performers, although not very numerous, also contribute to depress the living and working conditions of professional musicians.

There is not a large number of foreign musicians in Poland. The numbers are estimated at about 5%. Very few musicians are now emigrating from Poland, but there is a certain amount of immigration, especially from Russia.

There are three organisations of Polish musicians: one for orchestral players, one for teachers, and one for organists. The two former unions are affiliated and represent a total of 4,000 musicians. In addition to defending the professional interests of their members, they pursue artistic aims, such as the institution of libraries and musical co-operative associations, the creation of centres of musical education and culture, the organisation of popular concerts in working-class quarters, the assistance of music institutions which are not satisfactorily managed, etc.

In April 1921, the above organisations held a congress at which they asked for the institution of an official organisation which might be represented in State institutions in order to defend the economic interests of musicians and to influence the decisions of the Government on artistic questions.

The chief complaints of the Polish musicians are as follows :

(a) The subsidies granted by the Government to musical institutions are insufficient, and this causes unemployment. The musicians wish the State to institute orchestras in Warsaw, Lemberg, Lodz, Cracow, Vilna and Posen, and a school of music in each province.

(b) The number of music schools and concerts in the provinces is inadequate.

(c) The legislation concerning royalties is inadequate.

(d) The military bands compete with professional musicians.

(e) There is no system of insurance against old age, invalidity and unemployment.

(f) Teachers of music are inadequately protected.

(g) There is no legislation concerning a weekly rest day.

V. — AUSTRIA

"Music may be called the language of Vienna."

In spite of the critical economic situation which has prevailed in the country since 1918, the position of musicians in Austria seems to be less difficult than in other countries with a low exchange rate. This phenomenon may be explained in several ways. The value of the Austrian currency has now been stable for several months, and salaries and wages have had time to adapt themselves to a certain extent. Certain phenomena which are extremely striking in countries where the currency depreciates day by day have ceased to be acute in Austria or have entirely disappeared. The sense of, at any rate, relative security has been restored, and it is all the more highly appreciated because of its novelty. Austrian musicians have taken advantage of the revolutionary period and of the economic crisis to form strong organisations, and they have been less seriously affected by unemployment than other bodies of workers.

Still more importance should, however, probably be attached to reasons of a less material character. The love of music among the population of Vienna can hardly be overestimated. The trials through which the Viennese have passed have not diminished but rather increased their fondness for concerts, operas and musical performances in general.

There is a story that when the Turks were encamped before Vienna, the Emperor Leopold I, who had no money to carry on the war, raised funds by means of operatic performances. Every time the Austrian people has been subjected to political oppression, as, for example, under the Restoration, there has been a special development of musical activity. Music is one of the forms in which this nation of mixed Germanic, Slav and Italian races manifests its heroism or its resignation.

After the crisis which occurred in the winter of 1914-1915, when many of the concert halls were closed, a rapid recovery took place. There was a great deal of musical activity throughout the war, even when famine conditions prevailed. Shortly after the Revolution in 1918 some halls were obliged to close owing to the coal shortage, but this deprivation was so acutely felt by the inhabitants, the authorities received so many petitions and such large audiences came to hear music in unheated halls in the middle of winter, that musical activity entirely recovered its vigour in the following year. The most difficult period of the economic collapse was to some extent alleviated by the presence of numbers of foreigners who helped to maintain the most valuable institutions of Vienna. The Society of Friends in particular made great efforts to support the Viennese music. There was soon a further recovery, and at the present time Vienna has more halls, more concerts, more theatres and larger audiences than ever. It has been truly said that music to the Viennese is not a luxury but a necessity.

The shifting of social classes in Austria has produced less effect than in other countries such as Germany because that part of the population which has now become well-to-do is as much attached to music as the wealthy classes of former days. The population of Vienna is as passionately interested in music as the population of other countries is in sport. Workmen, and even school-boys, may be heard to carry on interminable discussions in the street on the merits of a prima-donna or a conductor. An important concert causes a greater sensation than a debate in Parliament; "music", it has been said, "may be called the language of Vienna". The audiences at musical performances have thus only changed places; those who used to sit in the stalls are now in the gallery, and those who used to be in the gallery are now in the stalls. All, however, are still equally enthusiastic in their appreciation.

Important changes have, nevertheless, taken place. The most serious of these is perhaps that many of the younger intellectuals are now unable to attend concerts. This causes, or is at any rate liable to cause, a breach of the musical tradition which constituted part of the importance of Vienna as an artistic centre. Then again the interests of the public have changed. It is

less interested in the perfection of the general effect and more interested in the individual qualities of the performance or the novelty of the music — in a word, in the sensational. Musical enthusiasts complain of the introduction of what they call the “star system” in Vienna. This is the darker side of the picture, but it is not so serious as to constitute a danger for the future.

A. *The Teaching of Music.*

The Academy of Music, which was for many years maintained by the Association of Music Lovers, was taken over in 1908 by the State on account of the financial difficulties of the Association.

Pupils must pass a test for admission, but there are preparatory classes for beginners. There are a certain number of free places, and also scholarships, but the latter are of slight importance.

The Academy is the only institution which has power to confer State diplomas, which give the right to teach music in schools and to become a member of the music teachers' associations.

The Academy has about 1,200 pupils, *i.e.* 300 more than before the war. The increase is due to the fact that at the present time music provides a better living than the academic professions. A certain number of the pupils are doctors and engineers who hope to obtain a better livelihood in their new profession. There is also a considerable increase in the number of pupils in the classes for instruments such as the bassoon, which cannot be played as a solo instrument. These pupils evidently intend to earn their living exclusively as orchestral performers.

There are 250 foreign pupils — a rather higher number than before the war. Most of them are from the Succession States or from Eastern Europe. In principle, higher fees are charged to foreigners than to Austrians, but special arrangements are made for pupils coming from countries with a low exchange rate and for pupils who are without means. In particularly deserving cases, such pupils may even be given free places. The fees charged to Austrians are 1,000,000 kronen, which, if reckoned in purchasing power, corresponds to about 100 pre-war kronen.

The Academy is particularly noted for the teaching of stringed instruments, but it gives instruction in all branches of music. There are operatic and orchestral classes and even a dancing class, although the real school of ballet dancing is attached to the Opera. The singing classes in Austria, as in other countries, have suffered severely. This is particularly due to the physical depression due to war-time underfeeding.

There are about 30 professors in the Academy. Their rank is the same as that of teachers in secondary schools. Their salaries are from 1,500,000 to 2,000,000 kronen per month (150 to 200 francs), while the director receives 2,500,000 kronen (250 francs). The professors, however, unlike the director, are able to give outside lessons. In these circumstances, the Academy has great difficulty in retaining the services of its most celebrated professors, many of whom can earn high salaries in foreign countries, while in Vienna their pupils can easily earn as much as they do by playing in a cinema for several hours a day.

The Academy teachers have asked that the institution should be transformed into a “Hochschule” (college). This term has a definite sense in German scholastic terminology. It would in many ways be advantageous for the Academy to be assimilated to a university; the diplomas given to the pupils would be more highly thought of and the professors would receive higher salaries. This would, in turn, re-act on the quality of the instruction, as the professors would no longer be obliged to engage in supplementary work outside hours. They would also be better able to keep abreast of foreign musical literature which in their present situation is quite inaccessible to them.

The Government has not yet felt able to transform the Academy into a *Hochschule*, as this would involve considerable expense. It has, however, instituted advanced courses for pupils who have completed the ordinary course of instruction.

The purchase of music and foreign musical literature has become almost impossible for individual professors and very difficult for the institution as a whole. The Academy also encounters great difficulties as regards the upkeep and repair of its musical instruments.

The next most important school of the country is the Mozarteum in Salzburg. Until 1922 this school of music was maintained by the foundation known as the “Mozarteum” but on

January 1st last the foundation was obliged to give notice to all the staff as from July 1st. The Mozarteum was therefore taken over by the State at the beginning of the last school year. Two-thirds of the expenses are paid by the Federal Government and one-third by the town and district of Salzburg. The proportion of foreign pupils in the Mozarteum is considerably higher than in Vienna.

The Government also contributes to the upkeep of various other schools of music in the provincial capitals. The Federal Government generally pays half the expenses, the town one quarter, and the province one quarter. All these schools have introduced special classes for conductors as well as for instrumental playing.

There is a school of church music at Klosterneuburg near Vienna which is attached to the Academy of Music. The number of pupils has not yet fallen off, although church music offers little hope of a livelihood, and those persons who take it up as a career are certain to find themselves in financial difficulties.

There are about 300 private schools of music at Vienna, and of these about 20 are of real importance. The largest, the *Neues Wienerkonservatorium*, has no less than 2,000 pupils.

It is very difficult to calculate the number of private teachers of music, but it is estimated that the number in Vienna alone is six or eight thousand. The Association of Music Teachers (*Musikpädagogischer Verband*) has attempted to establish a minimum fee of one gold krone per hour for its members, or, under present conditions, about 15,000 kronen. The usual rate before the war was 2 kronen. The Association has concluded collective agreements with a number of private schools on this basis. The instructors of these schools receive salaries ranging from half a million to three million kronen per month (50 to 300 francs). It is estimated that in 1913 some of them were earning from eight to ten times as much. The collective agreement provides for holidays with pay and lays down regulations relating to sickness and discharge and to legal protection in the case of disputes.

Independent teachers who are not connected with a school are in a desperate position. Some of them manage to obtain as much as 100,000 kronen an hour; most, however, would lose their pupils if they attempted to maintain the minimum fee. In the provinces the situation is still worse.

It is hardly necessary to say that a large number of amateurs give lessons in order to make up for the loss of income due to the crisis. Amateurs of this kind compete very seriously with professional musicians. Their number is continually increasing owing to the discharge of officials from government employment (*Abbau*) and this again tends to diminish the number of pupils by causing a sense of insecurity among the very class of the population which was most accustomed to take music lessons.

Music teachers are almost certain to be out of employment during the holidays, and their earnings during the rest of the year do not provide sufficient compensation. The *Musikpädagogischer Verband* has attempted to introduce the principle of holidays with pay for music teachers, but there are very few pupils whose generosity or whose means are equal to this.

Music teachers are regarded by the Government as persons conducting a business and have to pay the tax of 1 per cent on their turnover. In principle, this tax is paid by the pupils, but in practice it is generally borne by the masters themselves.

The upkeep of instruments and the purchase of music are becoming increasingly difficult. It is estimated that the sums required for this purpose are eighteen thousand times as high as in 1913. Most teachers of music can only obtain the music they require by a system of mutual loans. It has become common for a kind of co-operative society to be instituted for this purpose.

The *Musikpädagogischer Verband* is anxious to protect its members against the competition of unqualified persons by obtaining the institution of a Chamber of Musical Education membership of which would be compulsory and which would only admit teachers holding the State diploma. This demand, however, runs counter to the Constitution, which lays down that private instruction is to be subject to no control.

Special mention must here be made of an instrument which is little known in other countries but is of great importance in Austria. This instrument is the zither. There is in Austria an

association of teachers of the zither and a school which specialises in the teaching of this instrument. As a general rule, however, it is taught individually. The number of professionals is rapidly decreasing under the pressure of the competition of amateurs, which is particularly strong in the case of this instrument, as it can be learnt in a comparatively short time. In the reply which they sent to the questionnaire of the International Labour Office, the teachers of the zither nevertheless estimated the expenditure required for their training at 20,000,000 kronen (2,000 francs).

B. Solo Performers and Composers.

The following figures will suffice to give some idea of the intensity of musical activity in Vienna. The number of concert agencies has risen from two in 1913 to twelve. Before the war there were eight concert halls, including large ones. In addition to these four, several halls in the Hofburg have been opened to the public for concerts, and all these halls are full every evening during ten months out of the twelve.

The price of seats ranges from 6,000 to 40,000 kronen (60 heller to 4 kronen in gold value.) When the hall is full, considerable profits can be made.

There are three principal kinds of concerts. The most numerous and important are those given under the auspices of the great musical societies such as the well-known *Gesellschaft der Musikfreunde*, which was founded in 1812, the *Singverein*, which has more than 500 members, and the *Orchester Verein*. Every seat in the large halls in which these concerts are held is generally booked long in advance. Although the symphony concerts, in which a chorus often takes part, are, of course, very expensive to organise, the deficit is generally small. If there is a deficit it is borne by the society. During ten months out of the twelve, in Vienna there is generally one symphony concert and sometimes two every day, and two on Sunday afternoons.

During the war, two orchestras, the *Konzertverein* and the *Wiener Tonkunstverein*, were amalgamated to form the *Wiener-Symphonie-orchester*, which gives a concert nearly every night. The orchestra is maintained by a society some members of which, who do not actually play in the orchestra, cover any losses which may be incurred.

The orchestra of the Opera House, which performs under the name of the Philharmonic Orchestra, gives a series of eight Sunday concerts during the winter and eight rehearsals to which the public are admitted.

The second category of concerts are those given by famous performers for an agency. These concerts, which are generally very well advertised, frequently bring in large profits. It is stated, for example, that Selmakurz makes 25 million kronen in an evening and that the sale of tickets for the hall sometimes brings in 35 millions. It is not uncommon for a good conductor to obtain 1,000 to 1,500 Swiss francs. Even if the artist who gives the concert is less famous, it is not unknown for the sale of tickets in a large hall to bring in 12 to 15 millions.

The third category of concerts are those given at their own expense by musicians who wish to become known to the public. Concerts of this kind have always resulted in a loss in Vienna, as in all other towns. The position in this respect is, however, not much worse than before the war. In Vienna it is possible to find a sufficient number of persons willing to help a musician by buying the most expensive tickets. The cost of giving a concert is about 3 millions and the deficit is not generally more than 1 million (100 francs).

No account of Viennese music would be complete without some mention of chamber music, which plays a great part in Viennese social life. Entertaining has, of course, been very much reduced, but there is still a large number of amateurs who engage professional musicians to form a quartette.

The part played by foreigners in the musical life of Vienna has not very greatly increased. For a certain period they formed a large proportion of the audiences at concerts, but most of them have now left the country.

One of the institutions which have disappeared owing to present circumstances, is the old *Hofkapelle*, which consisted of musicians of the Philharmonic Orchestra and singers of the

cathedral choir. Before the war these performers received 60 kronen per month, and for some time after the Revolution they continued to perform for the same fee, although it had become almost valueless. The Government has, however, been unable to provide the funds necessary for the maintenance of the *Hofkapelle*, and this institution ceased to exist last year.

The artistic standard of the performances at the Vienna Opera House at the present time is variously estimated. Many Austrians regret that this admirable institution has first been discovered by foreigners at a time when it is unable entirely to maintain its previous artistic level. Last year the Opera received a Government subsidy of 24 milliards (about 2 million francs). The financial sacrifices necessitated by operatic performances may be illustrated by the fact that the Opera was unable to undertake the performance of a new ballet by Richard Strauss, which would only have lasted half an hour but would have cost not less than 10 milliard kronen to stage.

The orchestra of the Opera consists of 135 performers, *i.e.*, 15 more than its normal number.

Composers are in an extremely difficult position. The chances of publication and the opportunities of performance are few, and royalties are extremely low. The position would in fact be almost impossible if it were not for the intense musical activity in Vienna, which gives composers a number of subsidiary resources. They can, for example, be professors at the Academy, orchestral conductors or musical critics. All the Viennese papers have not only one but several musical critics. This illustrates the great interest which the public takes in everything connected with music and musicians.

Royalties are collected by the Austrian Association of Authors and Composers. The system of collection has been greatly improved by the agreement which has been concluded between this association and the Musicians Union. The agreement is known by the name of "Musikschutz". According to this agreement the musicians are to assist the composers and to place their organisation at their disposal in order to help them to obtain their royalties.

The contracts of the Austrian society, unlike those of the corresponding German company, are not based on a fixed quota but on a percentage of the receipts. In this way composers obtain some benefit from increased prices. In spite of this, however, the receipts of the Association of Authors and Composers from musical performances have only increased 800 times in comparison with the pre-war period, and the profits which reach the composers have only increased 500 times, whereas the cost of living is nearly 10,000 times higher.

During the war the collection of royalties abroad was suspended. The arrears due to composers have been guaranteed by a recent agreement concluded with the French company. The amounts in question have, however, been collected in depreciated kronen. The amounts are as follows :

	Kronen
	—
1914 (last three quarters)	2,079
1915	2,273
1916	2,272
1917	3,480
1918	4,294
1919	6,686

This gives a total for the five war years of 21,000 kronen, which is equivalent to about 2 Swiss francs. The amounts collected in subsequent years were as follows :

	Kronen
	—
1920	107,501
1921	270,723
1922	10,147,000

The total amount for the last two years was thus 10,417,000 kronen, which are worth about 1,000 francs.

The Austrian association, on its side, has paid the French company a sum of 26,000 francs for the years 1921 and 1922. It will be noted that the balance is by no means in favour of the Austrian composers.

Composers who wish to have their works published are in practice almost entirely dependent on the great firm known as "Universal Edition". This firm, which carries on international activities on a large scale, fixes its selling prices in the various countries, not according to the cost of production but according to what the public can pay. In Austria, now that the krone has been stable for several months, it is gradually arriving at selling prices which nearly cover the cost of production. In Germany, on the other hand, it is selling at half the cost of production. In other countries profits are made which vary according to the purchasing power of the population.

The firm is only able to sustain international competition owing to the fact that some of its publishing and engraving is done in Germany. Engraving is at the present time twice as expensive in Austria as in Germany. The Universal Edition nevertheless employs 16 permanent copyists in its Vienna office. Nearly all its contracts are concluded on the basis of division of risks and profits between the composer and the publisher. The fixed sums paid are very small. It is said, for example, that the rising composer Schönberg receives a fixed payment of 2,000 Swiss francs a year for all his works.

Many composers complain that they have to obtain a reputation in Germany before they are accepted by their compatriots. This, however, is surely not a peculiarly Viennese phenomenon.

C. *Concerted Music.*

The system of collective agreements is very general in Austria. The salaries and conditions of work of orchestral musicians are regulated by a number of agreements concluded between the Musicians Union and the various employers' organisations. There is a general agreement applying to the country as a whole and special agreements laying down the salaries and various matters of detail for each particular district. These agreements fix the hours of work, the allowances to be paid for the upkeep of instruments, travelling allowances, provision in case of sickness, etc., means of appeal in case of dispute, and so on. It is impossible in the present report to give an account of the details of the agreements, which vary according to the special branch of the profession concerned. It is sufficient to state that, as regards their conditions of work and the clearly defined nature of their relations with their employers, Austrian musicians are perhaps better situated than those of any other country.

The following are the conditions in respect of salaries :

Orchestral musicians :

- (a) Members of operatic orchestras receive on an average 1,900,000 paper kronen;
- (b) Concert players receive on an average 1,750,000 paper kronen;
- (c) Theatrical musicians receive on an average 1,350,000 paper kronen.

Musicians in small orchestras and bands :

- (a) In cafés, 40,000 paper kronen;
 - (b) In cinemas, 42,000 paper kronen;
 - (c) *Schrammelmusiker* (1), 25,000 paper kronen.
- The hours of work are four to six per day.

About 75 per cent of the musicians live entirely on what they earn by their profession. The remaining 25 per cent obtain most of their income from some other source and only engage in music as a subsidiary occupation.

(1) Bands of three or four, including one or two strings, a mandoline and an accordion. They occupy about the same position as Tziganes in Hungary.

Most of the above-mentioned categories of musicians increase their regular professional earnings by giving music lessons. The better known musicians perform chamber-music.

There was not a large amount of unemployment after the revolution in 1919, *i. e.* since the fall of the Austrian Empire, as Vienna in particular was so full of foreigners and profiteers that bands were instituted in almost every café, restaurant and cinema. It was only when the Austrian krone became stable that the foreigners left the country and the profession began to suffer from stagnation. About the same time large numbers of civil servants were dismissed and in consequence there was a falling-off in attendance at establishments where concerts were given, and many cafés, restaurants and cinemas dismissed their orchestras or reduced their size. Musicians have been involved in serious difficulties, not only because business was bad but because the above-mentioned establishments are very highly taxed by the municipality of Vienna, which regards music as a luxury and therefore imposes taxation amounting to 40 per cent of the gross receipts. The following example shows how these establishments are injured by the high taxation. A man who owned two establishments and was doing good business without an orchestra engaged a pianist and violinist for each establishment at 100,000 kronen. Owing to this he often had to pay 20 million kronen a day as luxury tax. The owner of another undertaking engaged an orchestra through an employment agency. When the orchestra was to begin playing, the owner paid the members the salaries equivalent to 14 days notice without allowing them to play a note, as, if the band had played, the undertaking would have had to pay 40 per cent. of its gross receipts, and it was therefore cheaper to pay off the members of the orchestra without making use of their services.

Among the causes of unemployment may also be mentioned the competition of amateurs with professional musicians.

The musicians of the Vienna Opera House have formed a special company among themselves known as the Philharmonic Orchestra. This orchestra includes 120 performers, and all members of the orchestra of the Opera are entitled to belong to it until this total is reached. The orchestra gives eight concerts, and eight rehearsals to which the public are admitted, as well as one benefit concert and rehearsal for its pension fund. Felix Weingartner is specially engaged to act as the conductor of the orchestra at a fee of 2 to 3 million kronen per concert. It should be remembered that the purchasing power of a million kronen is about the same as that of 100 Swiss francs.

The musicians of the Opera are employees of the State and as such enjoy certain privileges. For example, their salaries are modified in accordance with the cost of living, and they come under the State insurance system. In former times the orchestral musicians had a special pension known as the "Pensions-Ersatzinstitut der Orchester u. Bühnen-angehörigen". This institution has now been taken over by the Government, which has assumed its obligations.

The *Wienersymphonieorchester* was formed, as was stated above, by the amalgamation of two orchestras, the membership of which was so far reduced during the war that they could not continue to exist separately. In theory they still subsist as two orchestras and each has its own conductor. The musicians are, however, the same in both cases.

The Symphony Orchestra, which is not attached to any theatre, gives one performance every day and two on Sundays. In principle, the performers, like those of the Philharmonic Orchestra, are on duty twice a day, in the morning and in the evening, and have their afternoons free for giving lessons or carrying on some other subsidiary occupation. They earn about 1 1/2 million kronen a month (150 francs) and when there is a deficit in the funds of the orchestra they are assisted by generous members of their society.

The orchestras have no difficulty in keeping up their numbers, as a large number of well-trained performers leave the Academy each year. In previous times most of the brass instruments were played by Czechs, many of whom have now returned to their own country. Some of them have been replaced by members of dissolved military bands, and the Austrian schools of music are at present compelled to make great efforts to train good players of this kind.

There is a certain amount of unemployment among Austrian musicians, but it is mostly seasonal in character. In winter most musicians can find employment in a town where music

is as popular as it is in Vienna. Unemployment is most frequent in the higher branches of the profession, particularly among conductors.

The number of foreign musicians in the Viennese orchestras is not very great. In the orchestra of the Opera House, however, nearly all the brass instruments are played by foreigners. Most of those are persons who have been settled in the country for a long time, as, owing to the rate of exchange, it is difficult to obtain fresh foreign players. The Austrian musicians therefore complain less of immigration on the part of foreigners than of the obstacles which other countries place in the way of their emigration. They are quite willing that foreigners should be allowed free access to Austria, but they protest against the unilateral character of this regulation as laid down by the Peace Treaty.

Austria is a country with a great tradition of choral singing. There are two important choirs in Vienna, and a large number of choral societies, men's choirs and mixed choirs. These societies do not appear to encounter the same difficulties as the German societies. Throughout the period of the economic crisis they have been able to rely upon the assistance and enthusiasm of their members, and their artistic quality has not deteriorated.

The church choirs have been very seriously affected by the economic conditions. This applies in particular to the choir of the Cathedral of Vienna, which consists partly of amateurs and partly of professionals who used to receive a salary of 60 kronen a month. Although it has not been possible to raise this salary so as to correspond with the present cost of living, most of the members have continued to belong to the choir.

Finally, to state the view of Austrian musicians themselves, the most serious economic evil from which they are suffering is the competition of persons who engage in music as a subsidiary profession, and the competition of amateurs. This is very seriously felt because there is no legislation for the protection of musicians. All possible and impossible kinds of people engage in music in every place and at every price.

The best remedy for these evils would be the adoption of the legislation on chambers of musicians which was proposed by the musicians' organisations several years ago.

Appendix

Reply of the Association of Authors, Composers and Publishers of Music in Vienna (Gesellschaft der Autoren, Komponisten und Musikverleger in Wien) to the Questionnaire of the International Labour Office.

The Association of Authors, Composers and Publishers of Music in Vienna was instituted in 1897. Its purpose is the protection of the rights of Austrian authors and composers and their legal successors, and in particular the prevention of unauthorised performances of their works. The Vienna association is the second oldest association of the kind; the oldest is the *Société des Auteurs* of Paris, which was taken as a model for the institution of the Vienna association. The successful results achieved by these associations in the last 20 years led to the institution of similar societies in Germany, Italy, Great Britain, Spain, the Scandinavian countries, the Netherlands, the United States, Hungary and Czechoslovakia. The Austrian Association maintains business relations with all these associations, and the performance rights of Austrian composers are therefore protected and represented in all the countries mentioned. The international congresses of associations for the protection of authors' rights which have been held during the last three years at The Hague, London and Berlin have restored the relations which were interrupted by the war and have led in many cases to the amendment of the often very unsatisfactory legislation on authors' rights in the various countries. At the last congress which was held in Berlin in 1922, proposals were made for a revision of the Berne

Convention for the protection of literary and artistic workers. This revision is, in fact, to be carried out. Valuable as the Convention is, it is still defective in several respects. Its importance has been greatly increased by the fact that a large number of countries, including Austria, have adopted it since the conclusion of peace.

One important difficulty is the inequality of the period during which intellectual property rights are protected. In most countries the period ends 50 years after the death of the author, but in some countries, including Austria and Germany, the period is only 30 years. The authors of the legislation considered that it is very rare for musical compositions to survive their authors by more than 30 years, and that the few compositions which outlasted this period were works of particular value which it was necessary to make readily accessible to the public. What they failed to realise, however, was the fact that the absence of restrictions on the performance of such works did not bring profit to the nation but only to agents and speculators, while the heirs of the musicians often had to struggle with distressing poverty. A striking example is that of Richard Wagner, whose immortal works, which have by no means lost their power of attraction, are now everywhere performed without royalties. In the meantime the heirs of the musician are reduced to poverty, and it has been necessary to take steps to provide them with a voluntary royalty of 1 per cent (instead of 10 per cent), at any rate from the most important operatic stages. The prices of tickets for the performances have not been reduced owing to the fact that the works can be performed without royalties, and the public still has to pay as much as ever to hear Wagner's operas; the profits go to the theatre managers and not to the community. The same remarks apply to the sale of printed music. In a few years the works of Johann Strauss and Franz Suppé will become free. These works have lost none of their vitality and will long continue to be performed. It may be mentioned in passing that works which have become public property are liable to be arranged by anyone who likes, whether qualified or not. This has often led to serious abuses.

The Berlin Congress unanimously decided to appeal to the Governments of all countries to protect authors rights for at least 50 years. It may be hoped that this appeal from the bodies competent to represent intellectual creative workers in all countries will not remain unheard.

The following remarks are submitted in reply to the questionnaire.

Composers do not receive fixed salaries. With the exception of a few composers of operas, light operas and popular modern dance music, our composers are far from favourably situated. Most of them would be unable to provide suitable support for their families if they did not exercise some subsidiary occupation such as that of music teacher, musical performer, civil servant, etc.

In general, the material position of composers has been improved by the fact that they no longer receive a small fixed payment from the publisher, as was customary a few years ago, but usually obtain a percentage royalty on the copies sold. Our association provides the composers with an organisation which not only collects a fixed fee from all organisations which give concerts, *e. g.*, concerts agencies, associations, committees, restaurants, cafés, cinemas, etc., for permission to perform protected works, and distributes such fees among the persons entitled to them in accordance with the number of performances specified in the programme, but also protects their authorship rights in other ways. The organisation also takes steps to see that members who have reached the age of 60 and the widows and orphans of members receive allowances for their maintenance. Ten per cent of the gross receipts are devoted to this purpose, as well as any gifts, and the proceeds of voluntarily abandoned authors' rights. These allowances, which are somewhat inaccurately called pensions, are fixed each year in accordance with the number of pensioners and the receipts of the society for the year in question.

In 1919 our association formed a joint association with the Austrian Musicians Union under the title of "Protection of Music" (*Musikschutz*). This association, which began its work in the autumn of 1919 and obtained even more successful results than were expected, is of special importance not only to composers but also to musical performers. The work of this institution is based on the principle that the payment of royalties on performances should be undertaken by the concert audiences which are the parties most interested in the performance of new works.

This relieves the position of the organisers of concerts, who are already heavily burdened by the entertainant tax and other taxes, while the small fee which is charged to the individual members of the audience is not seriously felt. Under this system our receipts have been considerably increased. The Austrian Musicians Union receives part of the receipts in return for the support of its organisation. If, for example, a proprietor of a restaurant which gives concerts refuses in the interests of his customers to collect the "music protection fee", he is no longer allowed to give concerts. If we were working alone we could only forbid him to use our repertoire and he would be able to give a programme consisting of works on which no royalties were due. Under the present system, however, even this is impossible, for the organisation of the Musicians Union then comes into action, and the proprietor in question is unable to find musicians to play for him.

There was at first much opposition to the introduction of this innovation, but this soon died down. At present the system is working almost perfectly and has resulted in a considerable increase of income to the composers. This is clearly proved by the fact that the pensions for aged persons mentioned above, which amounted in 1921 to 3,600 kronen, and in 1922 to, 10,000 kronen, were raised in 1923 to 300,000 kronen for every member entitled to a pension, and 150,000 kronen for every widow (as compared with 5,000 kronen in 1922).

The example of our *Musikschutz* has attracted attention in other countries and a similar body will probably be introduced in Germany as from July 1st, 1923.

Vienna, May 12th, 1923.

VI. — ITALY

Although orchestral music may be said to have originated in Italy with composers such as Scarlatti, Corelli and Locatelli, Italian musical activity at the present day is confined almost exclusively to opera. Italy has only one permanent symphony orchestra, the *Augusteo* at Rome. Most, if not all, the composers write mainly or entirely for the stage, and most of the musicians derive the chief part of their resources from the theatre.

The opera is at present passing through a serious crisis. This situation is, however, not peculiar to Italy. The development of the cinema has resulted in all countries in very serious competition with the operatic stage. In addition to this general cause, however, there are causes which are particularly characteristic of Italy. The tastes of the public have changed less in Italy than in any other country, and Italians as a whole have not lost their taste for opera. The principal causes of the crisis are to be sought in the material sphere, in the conditions under which theatrical undertakings are carried on.

After the armistice, the theatre went through a period of prosperity during which theatrical workers were able to demand and obtain considerable increases of salary. The expenses of production, of course, increased in proportion. In addition, public entertainments are heavily taxed. Again, public taste has become more exacting, and theatrical companies are expected to reach a higher standard even in the small towns. While most of the actors were at the war, a few theatrical agents concluded contracts under which, in return for high fees, they obtained a monopoly of the employment of many of the best-known singers. These singers cannot accept engagements without their consent, and this they give only at an extremely high fee. This makes the production of opera extremely expensive for the manager. The activity of the agents in question is therefore severely criticised by the musicians' organisations.

The system of theatre management in Italy is of a somewhat peculiar character. Most of the theatres were built under the Restoration out of funds supplied by private persons who in return were allowed to retain possession of one or more boxes. Their tenure of these boxes resembles that of landed property. They are the only people who are entitled to use the seats, though they pay the usual prices for admission. What is more serious is that they have the right not to make use of the seats and to prevent other people from doing so. The theatrical management has no means of compelling them to allow the admission of other persons.

The box owners, who are known as *palchettisti*, constitute a sort of voluntary association which practically controls the management of the theatre. The managers submit the programme to them and apply to them for the necessary funds for production. The *palchettisti* may either accept or refuse their conditions. They have power to choose between several programmes and several demands for funds. They appoint the management which is to be responsible for the theatre during the season. If the sums which they are asked to supply are considered too high, they may appoint no manager at all and allow the theatre to remain closed. Without the consent of the *palchettisti* and the funds which they supply, no Italian theatre can be carried on, as the pit is too small to provide any kind of profits.

This state of affairs has prevailed in a large number of towns for the last year or two. The *palchettisti* prefer to dispense with a theatre rather than provide the funds necessary for the season's performance. The municipal authorities are already so heavily burdened that they are unable to raise their subscription to the necessary amount. The municipal subscription, which really represents the hire of the municipal box, ranges from 4,000 lire at Montevecchio to 1,000,000 in Rome. Venice gives 500,000 lire, Perugia 160,000, Bologna 85,000 and so on. These amounts are, of course, for the most part insufficient, and the theatres remain closed. This does not occur only in the small towns: the Carlo Felice Theatre of Genoa, for example, has been unable to open. At carnival time, which is the principal opera season, there were in former years about 150 municipal theatres in Italy; in 1923 not more than 40 were able to open.

The effects of this state of affairs are felt in many ways. In the first place there is a large amount of unemployment among performers, conductors and musicians. The crisis in the Italian musical profession consists, as we shall see, less in the decrease in salaries than in the prevalence of unemployment. The large number of operatic musicians who are now no longer able to make a living by their usual profession try to support themselves by lessons, and the result is that there is a great surplus of teachers. Publishers can no longer cover the expense of publication, as most of the theatres hardly continue to play existing works and certainly do not perform new ones. There have been a large number of bankruptcies among musical publishing houses, and the Ricordi firm of Milan now enjoys a practical monopoly which gives it full power to regulate artistic production and places all composers at its discretion.

With a slight degree of simplification and not very much exaggeration, it might be said that the musical question in Italy is primarily dependent on the apparently secondary question of ownership of boxes, and that all the other difficulties from which the musical profession is suffering are to be traced to this cause.

Certain attempts have been made to deal with this problem, which does not at first sight appear to be an insoluble one. Last March a congress was held in Rome which included representatives of the musicians' organisations, managers, musical critics, publishers, theatrical proprietors, theatrical lessees, middlemen, conductors, ballet producers, composers, etc. The congress considered the question as a whole and adopted several resolutions in favour of the institution of independent companies for the management of theatres, the reform of the legal situation regarding the ownership of boxes, the abolition of intermediaries for the engagement of musicians, and the granting of municipal subsidies. The foundation of a national theatre was also discussed.

An attempt at reform has already been made with some success at the Scala Theatre of Milan. This theatre is managed by what is called an "*ente autonomo*", i.e., a private association which manages the theatre without attempting to make profits. According to Article 18 of the Decree of May 4th, 1920, the Government may, in provinces of more than 300,000 inhabitants, where there is an operatic theatre of national importance, and pursuing artistic aims, impose a tax in addition to the tax on entertainments which is collected for the purpose of poor relief; the proceeds of this additional tax are entirely devoted to the theatre in question. Under this Decree, the entertainments tax for theatres, cinemas, and other public entertainments throughout Lombardy has been raised from 10 to 12 per cent. From this source the Scala receives an annual grant ranging from 1,400,000 to 1,800,000 lire.

An amicable arrangement has, moreover, been arrived at with the *palchettisti*, according to which they agree as a provisional measure, to pay for the hire of their boxes for nine years as if they were not the owners, on condition that the theatre undertakes to purchase the boxes at the end of the period if they so desire.

The Rome Congress wished to have an arrangement of this kind made legally binding throughout the country, or alternatively to have the *palchettisti* expropriated. The Government has not yet accepted either of these proposals, but the question is still under discussion.

The additional two per cent on the entertainment tax is shortly to be extended to Piedmont, where the proceeds will be devoted to the Royal Theatre of Turin, which is to be managed in future by an *ente autonomo*. If measures of this kind were generally adopted, the musical situation in Italy might again become normal. This is still more to be hoped, as it may be noticed that artistic production in Italy, in so far as it is not hindered by the theatrical crisis, is extremely active, and there is a sort of renaissance which promises great things for the future.

A. The Teaching of Music.

The teaching of music is not compulsory in the public elementary or secondary schools. The poorer classes can only receive a musical education by means of municipal scholarships or free places at the conservatoires. Some municipalities, such as that of Milan, have set up

popular schools of music in which singing and the playing of wind instruments are taught after working hours. The village bands (*bande*) also help to encourage musical knowledge and taste among the poorer classes.

There are six Royal Conservatoires in Italy, those of Milan, Naples, Palermo, Palma, Florence (*Istituto reale*) and Rome (*Liceo reale di Sta. Cecilia*). Other municipal schools work on the same lines and issue diplomas of equal value. These include the *Liceo Musicale civico* of Bologna, the *Liceo Rossini* of Pesaro, the *Liceo Guiseppe Verdi* of Trieste, and the *Liceo civico Benedetto Marcello* of Venice. At Bergamo, Florence, Genoa, Lucca, Padua and Turin, there are also institutions which give a thorough musical training which is recognised by the State. Some of these institutions are old foundations and traditionally attract foreign pupils.

An entrance test is necessary for admission to the above-mentioned institutes. Candidates must show not only that they have sufficient musical talent but also that their general education is that required for the stage of the course to which they wish to be admitted. They must in all cases produce a certificate showing that they have reached the proper standard of education for their age. The age of admission varies from 8 to 16 years, or 18 in the case of singing pupils. After two years work the pupils have to pass a further examination for definite admission.

The length of the course varies according to the branch of music which is being studied. For singing and small instruments, it is four years, while the longest course is nine years for the piano, the organ, the violin, the harp, the 'cello, or composition. There are, however, complaints that few students of singing complete their course.

The annual fees are not excessively high; they range from 45 to 120 lire according to the course taken, and an approximately equivalent sum is also charged for the diploma. There are, however, a certain number of free places. At the Milan Conservatoire, for example, there are nine free places for wind instruments and about 20 for the piano.

The salaries of the professors at the conservatoires range from 6,000 to 9,000 lire; the Director receives 14,000 lire. These figures, however, do not represent the whole of their real income, as the title of professor at the conservatoire enables them to earn considerably higher sums by private lessons.

It is generally considered that the public system of musical education is in need of reform, and the Government appears to be contemplating the necessary steps. There are, however, a number of proposals—one of which aims at the restoration of the medieval *Bottega musicale*—and none of these has, as yet, prevailed over the others.

The private music teachers, whose organisation is the Lombardy Association of Music Teachers, complain that the diplomas issued are not sufficiently uniform for the public to be able to judge of the capacity of the various teachers. The conservatoires give two kinds of diploma, the first of which is called the normal, and the second the higher diploma. Only the second represents a thorough musical training, and it is proposed to abolish the first. The Association of Music Teachers, however, makes still further demands. It welcomes the Government proposal to set up an Order in the various professions which would decide according to fixed rules which persons are to be regarded as professionals and which are qualified to give instruction in music. The aims of the Association in this respect resemble those of the French and Austrian associations of music teachers. They are, of course, faced with the same difficulty as regards the establishment of definite criteria.

The Association of Music Teachers has fixed normal scales of fees, both for lessons and performances. The scale is fairly well observed in the case of performances, but not so well in the case of lessons. The most famous professors ask nearly four times as much as they used to receive before the war. This corresponds fairly closely to the increase in the cost of living. Private teachers, however, generally have to be content with twice as much as they used to receive, and some teachers give piano lessons for 1 lira an hour.

The Association has 250 members. This, however, only represents a small proportion of the total number of persons engaged in teaching music in Milan. Thus there are 300 or 400 singing teachers, although not more than 30 or 40 are in possession of a diploma.

The teaching of singing in Italy is passing through a crisis similar to that in other Latin

countries. The first cause of this crisis is the inadequacy of the teachers and the methods of instruction. Many actors and instrumental musicians take up the teaching of singing without any previous training. The second cause is the impatience of the pupils, which is often due to economic difficulties. Hardly any actors or professional singers are now willing to undergo a sufficiently long training. In former times the course of instruction in singing lasted nine years, and the voices which were trained in this way in the last century maintained their value even when the singers had reached an advanced age. Now that the course is begun at the age of 18, however, nine years are considered too long. Although the courses have been greatly shortened, the conservatoires find that very few of the pupils complete them. It has been proposed that students of singing should be required to deposit a sort of guarantee which would be returned to them when they had concluded their studies. This proposal has not, however, been carried out, and most singers take up an operatic career before their voices are properly trained and exercised.

The third cause is to be found in the methods of composition of vocal music. It is considered in Italy that modern composers are too often dominated by foreign influence and do not take sufficient account of the necessities of the human voice and of Italian prosody. This imposes additional difficulties which many singers are unable to surmount. This is said to explain the somewhat remarkable fact that the study of singing has suffered much less severely in German-speaking than in other countries. It would appear, however, that a new tendency is coming into being now that the influence of Mozart is reviving.

B. Public Performers and Composers.

The living conditions of public performers in Italy are not very different from those in other countries; in other words, they are suffering considerable distress.

The number of concerts given in Milan has increased in the last ten years, but before that time it was very small. Not more than five or six symphony concerts are given in Milan every season, although three opera companies perform simultaneously. Concerts which are not orchestral always result in a loss, and in most cases the hall can only be filled by the issue of complimentary tickets.

Concerts organised for charitable purposes compete so seriously with those given by professional musicians that the Association of Musicians of Lombardy has been compelled to prohibit its members from performing without fees, even for charitable purposes.

Concerts thus do not constitute a source of income to musicians but rather a sacrifice which they are obliged to make for the sake of publicity.

It has been said that in Italy there is only one symphony orchestra: the Augusteo in Rome. In other towns symphony concerts are given by private associations, such as the quartette societies which exist in nearly all large towns, the Symphony Concert Society of Milan, which has 1,800 members, the Society of Music Lovers, etc. These concerts are generally not open to the public but are given exclusively for the members of the societies which organise them. Repeat performances are, however, sometimes given, either at the People's Theatre or in some other town of Lombardy.

In Rome, thanks to the Academy of St. Cecilia and the Augusteo, there are more opportunities of hearing orchestral music. During last season, the Academy of St. Cecilia organised no less than 37 concerts, at several of which the price of the tickets was extremely low.

The fact that orchestral music has to be performed by theatre orchestras produces various results. In the first place, concerts cannot be given during the opera season; they have to be held in autumn and spring and this tends to make them less successful. Last year the Scala Theatre organised a spring orchestral season; the profits were, however, not sufficient, and this year a spring opera season was given instead. The Symphony Concert Society could not obtain the assistance of the Scala Orchestra until June.

From the artistic point of view it is generally thought that orchestral music, especially

that of foreign composers, is not so well performed by theatre orchestras as by specialists. The playing of musicians who are accustomed to accompany singing is too melodic to be suitable for modern orchestral music. Toscanini has, indeed, trained a certain number of first-class symphony violonists in the Scala Orchestra, but this is an exception. It would not be correct to say that the public has no comprehension of orchestral music; the performances at the People's Theatre are much appreciated. Its education is, however, not complete in this respect; it has not sufficient opportunities to hear orchestral music, as most of the symphony concerts are reserved for members of special societies. Again, the Italian public is principally interested in execution; it is not the programme which fills the hall but the name of the conductor.

In spite of the love of the Italians for opera, it must not be supposed that the position of opera composers is an easy one. Comedies and operettas are performed by companies which go on tour from one town to another. The public loves novelty, and if a piece is advertised as new it is sure to go to see it. A play which has failed in one town is none the less performed all over Italy and its author receives large royalties. This, however, is only on condition that he has first gained the favour of one of the important theatre managers who constitute the Italian theatrical trust.

The opera is not in the hands of so few persons and thus the author has a greater chance. Unfortunately, however, operas do not attract the public until they are well known. A new opera, even if it is successful, is only played two or three times and does not cover the expenses. From the financial point of view it is better to be the author of a play which is hissed off the stage than of an opera which is favourably received, especially as the expenses of producing an opera are considerable. According to the publishing firm of Ricordi, the production of an opera, *e.g.* the "Belfagor" of Respighi, costs 100,000 to 150,000 lire.

There are two prizes for opera in Italy. One of them, which is known as the national prize, is given every year. The competition is not open to the composers themselves but only to managers, who submit the work of a composer and undertake to perform it if it receives a prize. The first prize is 50,000 lire and the second 25,000 lire. The composer also receives 10,000 lire towards orchestral equipment.

The other prize, which is given at Parma, was instituted by an American lady and is known as the Cormick prize. It is given every other year. The prize is 25,000 lire for an Italian opera, and preference is given to the opera dealing with the most national subject.

Publishing is entirely, or almost entirely, in the hands of the Ricordi firm. Most of the other firms have ceased to exist. Sonzogno has almost ceased to publish, and the few small publishing houses which have been set up recently are not yet able to compete with Ricordi, whose catalogue contains 180,000 numbers, including 800 operas.

The monopoly of the Ricordi firm is due to the fact that the publication of music has ceased to bring in any profits. Music is sold at twice the pre-war price; the price of paper, however, has increased ten times and wages five times. A score which is sold at 30 lire contains 10 lire worth of paper; if 1,000 copies could be printed, the cost of production would be 25 lire. Music is never printed in such large quantities, however, and in practice nearly all good music is sold at a loss. The firm still engraves scores in order to maintain its reputation; orchestral and chorus parts, however, are copied by hand and hired.

Publishers are only able to maintain themselves on the profits of older works, the selling price of which has increased while the costs of production have not changed. This is the reason why it is impossible, or at any rate difficult, to set up any serious competition in this industry. A publishing firm, in order to maintain profits, must have been the publisher of Verdi and Puccini. It is not entirely advantageous to the Ricordi publishing house itself to possess this monopoly. One of the principal members of the firm recently said jestingly that he would give several hundred thousand lire to any serious competitor who would set up a shop opposite. Ricordi is besieged by composers and inundated with compositions, and the firm naturally incurs more hostility than gratitude.

It is not possible in this report to estimate the artistic consequences of this situation. The selection of compositions for publication arouses a certain amount of criticism; some consider

that it is partial, while others regard it as too timid ⁽¹⁾. The Ricordi publishing house pays regular monthly allowances to a certain number of composers in the hope that they will produce works of merit. This generosity is generally appreciated, although many composers complain of the fact that they are not the recipients. They also complain bitterly because publishers are entitled to keep the works which they have purchased without publishing them. This question has also arisen in other countries and there have been many demands for an amendment of the legislation on artistic property in order to put an end to this state of affairs, which is regarded as an abuse.

The arrangements regarding royalties in Italy are not quite the same as in other countries. In order to understand the system a distinction must be made between what are called small royalties and large royalties.

The small royalties are those charged for detached pieces played by orchestras in cafés, cinemas or concerts. These royalties are collected by the Society of Authors itself, which follows the method used in other countries. In former times fraudulent practices were frequent and it was estimated that not more than 30 per cent. of the royalties were actually paid and received by the composers. The position is now greatly improved in this respect. It is difficult to say whether this is due, as some think, to an improvement in the moral standard of the community or to the fact that the Society of Authors has been entrusted for the last two years with the duty of collecting the entertainment tax for the benefit of the poor and is thus able to exercise much more rigorous supervision over entertainments than in the past. Whatever may be the cause, however, it is estimated that about 70 per cent of the royalties are now actually paid. This has caused a considerable improvement in the position of composers, although royalties have not risen in proportion to the cost of living.

The large royalties are those which are charged for theatrical performances. In other countries they are, of course, generally calculated as a fixed percentage of the receipts. This system is adopted in the Scala Theatre; in other theatres, however, the music and librettos are hired from the publishers at a fixed price which includes both the actual hire and the fees for performance.

The reason for this difference is not very clear. It does not appear to be of any advantage to publishers, for it is well known that they obtain more by a fixed percentage. The cost of hire for the performance of a new opera for an entire season in a large town is never more than 8,000 lire; generally it is not more than 3,000 and often it is still lower.

This figure appears still lower when it is remembered that the Italian theatres are not repertory theatres. Only one or two pieces are performed during the theatrical season and they are repeated until the public is tired of them. The Italian public, especially in the small towns, does not go to the theatre to hear a new opera but to learn its favourite operas by heart so as to be able to sing or whistle the tunes in the street. One conductor said that he had conducted "La Tosca" 26 times in succession at Savona.

In these circumstances the hire of a score is evidently much less profitable than a percentage of the receipts would be. It is thus not from the point of view of the theatres that the figures are open to criticism but from that of the composers and publishers.

It is easy to understand that theatre managers should prefer the lump-sum system to the percentage on receipts. It is not so easy to understand why the publishers should also prefer it. The publishers say that it is too difficult to keep a check on the receipts. This may apply to the smaller undertakings, but there seems no reason why the method which is successfully

(1) The National Congress of Choral Singers recently adopted the following resolution on this subject :

"The First National Congress of Choral Singers notes that the publishing monopoly impedes the free development of the industrial and artistic activity of the theatre, and, while admitting the right of authors and their dependents to earn fair profits by means of the talent and capital which they have employed, denies their right to control musical production in theatres by means of privileges and exclusive criteria, and calls upon the National Theatrical Corporation to take the necessary steps so that property rights in intellectual work in connection with music and the theatre may be regulated by the principle of *Dominio pubblico pagante*."

adopted in the case of the Scala should not also be adopted in other theatres as it is in other countries. It appears that the publishers have had unfortunate experiences with the system, as some of the managers have been unable or unwilling to pay the fees which were due at the end of the season. The principal reason, however, probably is that the publishers possess a large number of scores the copyright of which has expired and which could therefore be performed without royalties. These scores are those which are most popular and most often performed. The system of hiring parts and paying a lump sum makes it possible for publishers to exercise an influence on the composition of programmes and to obtain remuneration in the form of hire even for pieces the copyright of which has expired.

Composers complain bitterly of the system of fixed fees, which they consider is contrary to their interests. It not only decreases the amount of remuneration they receive for those of their works which are performed but it also decreases their chance of having their works performed. Since, however, the publishers and managers are agreed in preferring the system, the percentage system could only be generally introduced by legislation, and legislation of this kind has long been demanded in vain by the composers.

The position of the actors has become extremely difficult, partly owing to the theatrical crisis and partly owing to the activities of middlemen. It was explained above that, during the war when most actors were at the front, certain agents engaged all the actors who were not mobilised and guaranteed them contracts which provided for perhaps 60 performances per year at 1,000 or 1,500 lire per performance. They then hired out the services of these actors to the theatres which pay 2,000 to 3,000 lire for them. The benefit which the agent derives from this method is obvious. It also provides the actors with the advantage of security. Its drawback, however, is that by creating an artificial monopoly it makes what may be called "the supply of artistic labour" extremely expensive, and this greatly aggravates the theatrical crisis. The activity of the middlemen has resulted in a considerable amount of unemployment among actors, and it was strongly criticised in March at the Rome Congress.

Unemployment is increased by the fact that most of the Italian opera companies in foreign countries have ceased to exist. Before the war performances were given in Italian at Covent Garden in London, and there were Italian companies in Madrid, Barcelona, in Latin America, in Moscow, Petrograd, Kiev, Odessa and Warsaw. Most of these companies ceased to exist, or were very much reduced, when Italians in foreign countries were summoned home for military service. Only a few of them have been restored; the others have been replaced by local companies or companies consisting of actors of various nationalities, or, in the case of Latin America, by companies on tour.

The position of light opera performers is little better. The management of the Italian light opera theatres is concentrated in a few hands. One manager, M. Lombardo, has five or six companies which tour all over Italy. The actors are thus entirely in the hands of a few employers, who are able to reduce salaries and grant less satisfactory conditions of engagement.

There are, however, four or five gramophone companies at Milan. Milan is a great centre for the manufacture of records, and one of these companies alone makes more than 1,000 records in the year. This provides singers in Milan with an important additional source of income, for the pay for this kind of work is good : 45 lire for two hours on an average. The singers must, of course, be first-class artists.

The position of orchestral conductors in Italy is quite unlike that in other countries. They do not simply conduct the orchestra but they are, in fact, the artistic directors of the theatres. The public insists on the actual presence of some responsible person if it is not satisfied with the performance. The responsible person in question is the conductor, and his responsibility is not a theoretical one. It is he who draws up the programme in agreement with the manager. He engages actors, supervises the staging, and is responsible for the chorus. A man such as Toscanini at the Scala Theatre is all-powerful in the theatre. The theatre manager attends to the purely business side. The conductors do not, however, receive payment in proportion to their responsibility. Toscanini, who fixes his own salary, does not receive more than 120,000 lire per year.

The Operatic Congress proposed the institution of a single employment agency for all branches of theatrical workers. This could not, however, be done without the assistance of the theatre managers, who have not yet succeeded in forming an organisation. The single employment agency is also strongly opposed by the agents, and, although the idea has not yet been given up, its realisation appears to have been postponed.

C. Orchestral Music.

Since 1904 there has been a steady improvement in the conditions of work of orchestral musicians. Further improvements have been obtained since the war, particularly during the armistice period. At the present time collective agreements have become general and salaries are, as a rule, four times as high as in 1913. The average salary of the musicians of the Scala Theatre, which used to be 12 lire per day, is now 52 (ranging from 45 to 60). The average pay of other categories of musicians, light opera, variety theatre, cinema, hotel and restaurant performers, has risen from 7 to 8 lire in 1913 to 30 or 35. This approximately corresponds to the increase in the cost of living.

The Scala Theatre enjoys an immense reputation in Italy. Its position is quite different from that of any other theatre; it is the object of the ambition of all Italian musicians and the goal of their hopes. The entrance test, which is conducted in the presence of Toscanini, is regarded as a terrible ordeal. For all these reasons some separate consideration must be given to the conditions of work in the Scala Theatre. The season lasts eight months, and the salary is paid for seven days per week, one of which is a holiday; the management may, however, require the services of the musicians on that day, but must pay at the same rate as for other days. The average daily pay is 45 to 60 lire.

The orchestra of the Scala includes 103 performers. Their contracts are concluded for three years and run from November 1st to June 30th each year. November is devoted to rehearsals and May and June either to symphony concerts or to a spring opera season. The musicians have two periods of duty a day, either two rehearsals of 2 1/2 hours each or one rehearsal and one performance. The two last rehearsals before the performance of a new piece may last four hours each. Every hour in excess of four is paid for at one-fifth of the daily salary.

The musicians of the Scala Theatre enjoy favourable conditions as regards work and pay but are unable to engage in any other work. The management purposely fixes the rehearsals at irregular hours. The musicians may be able to give a few lessons, but not very many, and it is quite impossible for them to take another engagement.

In Rome the conditions are similar for the performers of the Augusteo, which is the municipal symphony orchestra, and the Costanzi, which is an operatic orchestra. The artistic level of these institutions is approximately the same. In practice, however, the position of the performers of the Augusteo is considerably more satisfactory, as this orchestra undertakes tours in South America.

The Augusteo orchestra is engaged by the Royal Academy of St. Cecilia, which accepts full responsibility for the profit or loss on the concerts. The pay of the musicians in the Augusteo is about the same as that of the performers in the orchestra of the Scala. It ranges from 30 to 60 lire per day according to the post.

The collective agreement of Milan lays down the following conditions for other categories of musicians: Operatic orchestras, 35 lire per day to be paid for seven days per week; one of these is a holiday, but the performers may be required to work on that day with additional payment. Light opera, 30 lire per day and one half-day's holiday. Cafés, 30 lire per period of services, or 45 lire for two periods of service; no weekly rest day. Variety theatres, 30 lire for two periods of service. Cinemas, 25 lire for two periods of service.

For special performances, in particular if an orchestra is constituted for a special occasion, the pay is 35 lire.

It will be noted that a weekly rest day is fixed for the higher categories of musicians, but not at present for the other categories. The position at Rome is similar.

Italy is probably the country where the largest number of rehearsals are held. When the Scala, for example, lends its orchestra to the Symphony Concert Society in June there are seven rehearsals for the concert which the Society gives. The Augusteo Orchestra must, according to its contract, have ten rehearsals per week for two performances. This is a higher average number of rehearsals than is customary in symphony orchestras in most other countries. This practice has a great effect on the artistic perfection of the performances.

The most serious risk to which Italian orchestral musicians are exposed is, as was stated above, that of unemployment. Pending the institution of the single employment agency to which reference has already been made, orchestral musicians generally obtain employment through the *Federazione orchestrale italiana* (F. O. I.) which has branches in most towns.

The organisation of orchestral musicians in Milan has 750 members, about 400 of whom are professionals in the strict sense and support themselves entirely by music. There are in Milan about 400 permanent posts for musicians, at any rate during the winter; nearly half the total number of musicians are thus dependent upon occasional employment.

Not all instruments are equally affected by unemployment. The orchestras generally suffer from a shortage of horns and bassoons; there is also a shortage of 'cello players, although, generally speaking, Italians are particularly fond of stringed instruments. There are large numbers of clarinette players, and there is a large surplus of performers on instruments which form part of military bands, as a number of such bands have been dissolved. The only exception is the horn, because military horns are pitched in B flat, while orchestral horns are pitched in F. This prevents military horn players from performing in orchestras.

Unemployment is, of course, most prevalent in summer. The local organisations of musicians in Italy have mutually undertaken not to send musicians from the district of one organisation to that of another. Each district provides for the requirements of a certain number of watering places. The Milan district, which only has the lake resorts, is somewhat poor in resources for the summer.

Musicians do not as a general rule enjoy the benefits of social insurance. Many of them, however, *i.e.* all those whose salaries are not more than 800 lire a month, are subject to compulsory unemployment insurance. Verdi founded a home in Milan for 80 aged musicians, and the musicians' organisations have set up mutual benefit societies as far as their means permitted.

There is very little immigration of musicians into Italy. Only a small number of foreign musicians are to be found in the country; they have become entirely assimilated by long residence, and no distinction is made between them and Italian performers. In finding employment for their members, however, the musicians' organisations give preferential treatment to those who have been resident in the district for a long time.

In former times emigration acted as a means of regulating the labour market and constituted an important resource for Italian musicians. The reasons why this situation no longer exists were explained in the part of the report dealing with the theatre. There is now little emigration except to the United States.

The musicians' organisations, which were in the past affiliated to the General Confederation of Labour, now form part of the Theatrical Corporation, which in turn belongs to the Fascist movement.

The Musicians' Association is affiliated to the Federation of Intellectual Workers.

The military bands, of course, play an important part in the musical life of Italy. The employment of army musicians exercises a considerable influence on the musical labour market owing to the preference given to them by employers on various grounds.

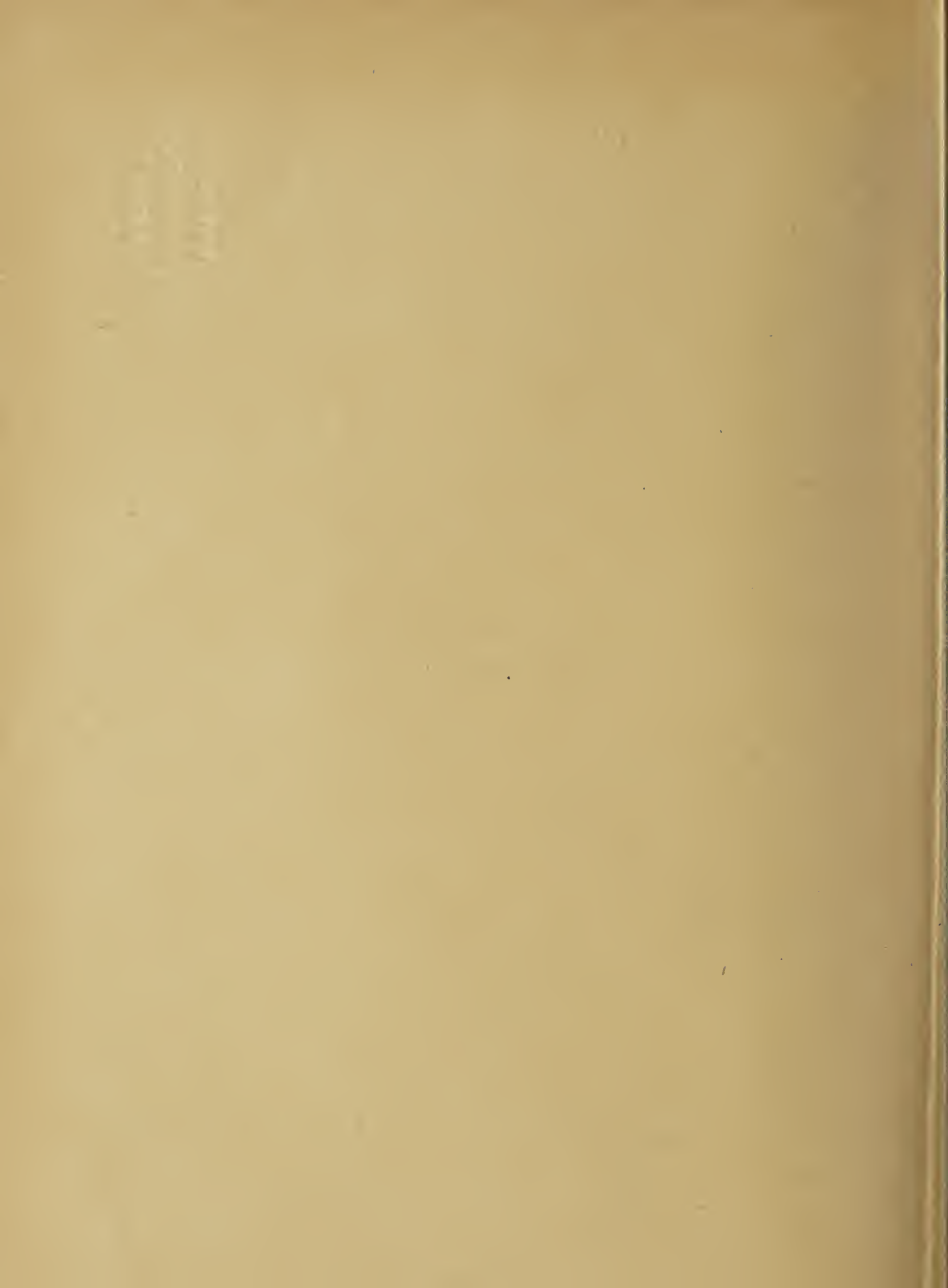
The disadvantages in employing army musicians, arising from their hours of duty, the claims of the service and military discipline, are compensated by the lower remuneration payable to them.

Italy, like other Latin countries, has no special tradition of choral singing. Here and there there are mixed choirs of amateurs, the artistic merit of which is generally entirely dependent on the capacity of their conductor. The choirs of Turin and Varese are well known. These are

exceptional cases; the development of mixed choirs is generally hindered by social considerations, as women seldom go out alone in the evening. The most famous choirs of Italy, such as those of the Scala and the Milan Cathedral, are permanent and consist of professionals. The choir of Milan Cathedral costs 50,000 lire a year, although the salaries are small and even the choirmaster only receives 300 to 400 lire. The chorus of the Scala numbers 120 — 70 men and 50 women. Their conditions of engagement are similar to those of the orchestral musicians, but they only earn 35 lire per day for two periods of service, one of which is between 12.0 and 2.0 in the afternoon and the other in the evening. This arrangement makes it possible for them to engage in other occupations.

Reference should be made in this connection to an enquiry the results of which were published in 1915 by the Deputy Ettore Neina (*I pubblici spettacoli e le previdenze di legislazione sociale*) which condemns the way in which children were exploited in chorus and ballets.

There is no difficulty in obtaining chorus singers in Italy, as large numbers of the population have good natural voices.



LEAGUE OF NATIONS
—
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO
THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series
INTELLECTUAL LIFE
IN THE
VARIOUS COUNTRIES

AUSTRIA

Conditions of Intellectual Work and Workers

By

A. DOPSCH

Professor at the University of Vienna,
Corresponding Member of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

NOTE

The object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing this series of pamphlets is to call attention to the problems of organisation and intellectual assistance to which each subject gives rise. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but desires rather to bring them to the notice of the public and to provide an opportunity for further suggestions.

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SITUATION OF INTELLECTUAL WORK AND WORKERS IN AUSTRIA.

By A. DOPSCH.

I. GENERAL REMARKS.

Even before the war, the conditions of intellectual work in Austria were, owing to the special characteristics of the Hapsburg Monarchy, entirely unlike those prevailing in any other European country. As a rule, there is a single uniform type of national culture ; in Austria there were several. Excluding the Roumanian, there were four main varieties — the German, the Slav, the Magyar and the Italian. It was, accordingly, no easy matter for the State to satisfy the claims of these various competing types of culture. All received encouragement, but the main efforts of the authorities were directed to promoting the German intellectual movement. Vienna was not merely the political centre of the Hapsburg Monarchy ; it had been for centuries the home and centre of a type of German culture which, under the influence of the surrounding peoples, had acquired a distinctive character extending even to its language.

The nobility used to spend some months every year in their palaces at Vienna. Representatives of the Slav and Italian districts, called to Vienna by administrative and parliamentary business, were brought into intimate relations with the life of the capital. In addition to officials, large numbers of non-German authors, artists, musicians and workers settled in Vienna, where they found remunerative employment and opportunities of self-development. During the latter years of the 19th century, Budapest, Prague, Cracow and Lemberg made rapid progress, but Vienna still remained a centre of culture and intellectual activity for all the Austrian provinces. Many non-German inhabitants of the Austrian territories attended the colleges and special schools, the Conservatoire of Music and the Fine Arts School in the capital. Students came even from Russia, Serbia, Roumania and Bulgaria.

Many foreigners resided for a longer or shorter period in Vienna. Situated at the intersection of a number of great international routes, the city lay on one of the highways to the east and south-east, and could even be regarded as the gate of the Orient. With its vast population, Vienna was a valuable market for the products of Eastern countries.

Galicia and Hungary, as well as Bohemia and Moravia, supplied Vienna and Austria with commodities which the latter could not themselves produce — coal, sugar, wheat, fruit, wine, live-stock, petroleum, eggs and fats. These districts found an excellent market in Austria for their agricultural produce and in their turn they imported from Austria and Vienna a considerable proportion of the raw materials required in their industries.

Before the war, the Monarchy took a prominent part in initiating and promoting important international undertakings, even outside its own frontiers. It maintained scientific institutes at Rome and Athens. The Archæological Institute at Athens had an advanced post in Asia Minor. Expeditions were sent out to distant countries and even to the Polar regions. Austrian scholars took part in international congresses and Austrian explorers travelled in Siberia, Egypt and Indo-China. No difficulty was experienced in publishing the results of investigations, and, thanks to the regular exchange of publications with even the most distant countries, full advantage could be taken of the work of foreign scholars. Austrian artists, moreover, were able to study in France, Italy, the Netherlands and Scandinavia. Even very modest resources were sufficient to enable them to work for a considerable time in those countries and to obtain fresh inspiration there.

Austrian engineers had ample opportunities for travelling to America and familiarising themselves on the spot with new inventions still unknown in Europe.

The world war ended the Monarchy, and this event affected every field of intellectual activity. With the disappearance of the nobility, intellectual life lost one of its supports without obtaining any compensating advantages. Present-day society, composed of *nouveaux riches* possessing immense fortunes which they spend freely on material things, takes no interest in intellectual acquisitions.

The downfall of the former Empire brought about far-reaching social changes. The middle classes were forced to abandon their easy manner of life owing to the depreciation of the Austrian crown. The numerous Government officials, especially, were affected by the depreciation of the currency, since their salaries did not increase in proportion to the rise in prices. Even now, the higher officials only receive a fraction of their previous salaries — four millions in paper money being worth only $266 \frac{2}{3}$ pre-war crowns. It is obvious that a family cannot live in comfort on so small an income.

One of the reasons for the rise in prices is that the country cannot produce what it requires. Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia and Hungary formerly supplied the needs of Austria. When they broke away from the Empire and discontinued sending supplies, or only sent them at high prices, it became impossible to buy textiles and foodstuffs. With their daily growing impoverishment, the inhabitants of the towns attempted to obtain food in the country and undertook "Hamsterfahrten", that is to say, expeditions to the farms in the neighbourhood. The farmers no longer sent anything to town and asked high prices for what they did not themselves require. Intellectual workers have suffered most from this economic revolution, as they belong to the official class or to the liberal professions (artists, authors, musicians). They had neither time nor money to undertake these foraging expeditions, which had gradually to be pushed farther afield, as the country became progressively denuded. Nor had they the means to make wholesale purchases. They were forced to confine themselves to buying in the town market, and paid prices which were again increased by middlemen, or, alternatively, to give up a large number of things which till then had been as much necessities to them as their daily bread.

During the war and the years which followed the 1918 disaster, intellectual workers suffered from hunger and cold ; it was impossible to buy wood, coal or foodstuffs. Formerly these products had come from Bohemia and Silesia, which were now part of the new Czechoslovak Republic. This entailed further difficulties ; not only did merchants supply less coal than householders required, but transport costs were increased by Customs duties. The price of a kilo of coal at Vienna at the present day is 1,050 crowns, that is to say, 15,000 times more than in 1914. The salaries of officials of the Confederation have gradually been increased to 5,000 times the pre-war figures ; in consequence, they are obliged to reduce their scale of living by two-thirds. Intellectual workers, who had almost entirely invested their money in scrip and Government bonds, converted them during the war into National Loan bonds. Their patriotism cost them their property. There are in Austria to-day no woollen, cloth or linen manufactures. These articles have to be bought in Czechoslovakia or England, and here the same difficulties are experienced as in the case of coal. Deliveries ceased during the war, and the costs of transport have since become too high. The situation has been met in various ways. Intellectual workers have had to wear threadbare clothing or have had their suits turned. Shoes have to be repaired time and again, as leather was too dear.

Many families, especially where there were several children, were forced to sell furniture or carpets, as their income had become inadequate, and provision had to be made for sickness. Servants were dismissed, or left their employers of their own accord, as the factories offered them better pay. The mistress and her daughters did the household work, and even undertook menial tasks ; in many cases they were not strong enough for the work and fell into bad health. Intellectual workers, who had suffered from under-nutrition during the war, became aware, after the disaster, that they had lost much of their mental alertness and general capacity for work ; their inability to concentrate and to find new ideas was increasingly evident. Fathers of families were depressed, not merely by their anxiety as to their daily bread, but also by overpowering physical fatigue. They were obliged to assist in the household work, to shop, carry coal, and clean their clothes and shoes. Before the war, they had opportunities for witnessing good theatrical performances, hearing good concerts, buying good books and visiting art exhibitions. They have now had to sacrifice all that ; the intellectual worker can no longer buy theatre tickets for himself, his wife or his children. The price of scientific journals too has risen, as well as the price of newspapers, the monthly subscription to the latter now being 30,000 crowns.

Children's education is deteriorating owing to the deplorable conditions of life. Children cannot now be given private piano, singing or art lessons. A single lesson costs from 15,000 to 30,000 crowns. In a family with several children, 2,000,000 crowns a month would have to be spent on a hundred lessons.

Weak or sickly children have to remain in the same class from term to term, as their parents are unable to pay for the extra tuition they require. They have also suffered in physique. Children, like their parents, used to attend gymnastic clubs, skate, play tennis, go for walking tours, excursions, etc. That is no longer possible, since the subscription to a skating club costs 150,000 crowns for the old members, disregarding altogether incidental expenses.

It was usual for everybody to go to the country or to the mountains in the summer. That is now impossible, on account both of the exorbitant prices asked by hotel-keepers and owners of villas and of the enormous railway fares. The cost of a third-class ticket from Vienna to Innsbruck is 100,000 crowns. That would mean a million for five return tickets. A senior official can no longer dream of taking a taxi to go to the station ; he must carry his luggage himself and cannot even register it or take a porter.

Intellectual workers cannot afford to use the public baths. University professors do not even go to the "People's Baths", which every beggar previously used to afford out of his alms. The price of admission is too high to allow of all the members of a family taking a bath once a week. Previously, in case of sickness, families of this class did not send for any casual doctor, many middle-class families having a general practitioner, who was, so to speak, the "medical adviser" to the family. Nowadays, a doctor's visit costs 100,000 crowns ; the patient must either do without it or go to the doctor's consulting-room. They are also unable to consult the specialists and dentists whom they used to visit from time to time. All these facts spell a deterioration of social hygiene and neglect of health, the consequences of which will be felt later. Infant mortality has risen considerably ; there was not enough milk, and the babies' rations were inadequate. Although the milk supply has now improved, the families of intellectual workers cannot afford either milk or butter. A litre of milk costs 5,500 crowns and a kilo of butter 78,000 crowns.

The war bread was positively injurious to persons with bad digestion. White bread was unknown. Everybody had to eat black bread, and what bread it was ! Bran was mixed with the wheat — and even maize and sawdust — to eke out the stocks. To cope with the famine during the war and the post-war period, recourse was had to "Ersatz" products, which were extremely unwholesome, especially for children. Instead of butter, we had bad margarine, and jam manufactured almost entirely with yellow and red turnips with a very little fruit, and molasses to give it a little colour. Instead of sugar, saccharine and other innutritious ingredients were used. The whole country suffered from general debility. Jokes were made by the passers-by at the expense of any healthy looking person, for the Viennese are given to humour. The intellectual workers were the real victims of the famine, and still are. There is grave danger that one day the foundation on which intellectual work rests in Austria may crumble away without any substitute arising in its place. The children of intellectual workers, who previously inherited high intellectual traditions, are at present obliged to earn their bread ; they have to choose their callings not according to their tastes but according to the pecuniary profits offered. They will be unable to study at leisure at the university or in the higher schools, especially as industry, trade and banking offer better prospects.

Intellectual workers are gradually approaching the proletariat in their conditions of life. Their standard of living is far below that of the manual labourer, who regards them as poor wretches, forced to go without ordinary comforts. The middle classes can no longer afford a doctor or teacher, or give assistance to artists ; they must avoid becoming entangled in a lawsuit, for the lawyer is too expensive. They have lost the respect of tradesmen and workers, because their clothes are no longer made to measure, but are sometimes threadbare or bought at old-clothes shops. This is the melancholy position of the class to which, before the war, our country owed its great intellectual development. It is impossible to travel abroad on account of the vexatious Customs worries and costs, and the depreciation of the crown. Even

those who would like to make a short stay in the country during the summer are deterred by the exorbitant prices asked them, prices, however, which foreigners are easily able to afford. The latter forget that, by thus taking advantage of an exchange which is favourable to them, they aggravate still more the position of the home population. Prices remain high, and intellectual workers suffer from this fact more than any others, as they were unable to make purchases before the crown fell.

Works of art are going abroad. Many a family heirloom, jewels, furniture, clocks, paintings, drawings, engravings, treasured up in the families of Government officials or of their descendants, are sacrificed and sold to the antiquary, who pays a low price for them, but obtains a very high price when they are sold by auction. Neither the State nor the law is able to help. In spite of the protests of all artists and men of learning, the famous Gobelin tapestries of the museums in the Imperial Court have been removed from Vienna. It is not only works of art that the foreigner takes from us ; he is also depriving us of the best of our native intellects. Several of our professors have been invited to foreign universities, and similarly, musicians, actors and singers leave the country, hoping to find better material conditions elsewhere. The consequent disadvantages will only be felt later. Many intellectual workers, natives of various provinces of the old Monarchy, had lived for years in Vienna ; they have now left and made their homes in the Succession States.

The Germans in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia occupy a very special position. They used to study at the Universities of Vienna, Innsbruck and Gratz, and then frequently became professors, engineers, doctors or lawyers at Vienna and in the Alpine provinces. Nowadays the Czechoslovak Government refuses to recognise the diplomas and degrees obtained in Austria, or gives the preference to candidates in possession of Czechoslovak diplomas. Immigration from that quarter, accordingly, is gradually drying up, whilst immigration from Poland (Galicia), Russia and the Bukowina to Austria, and more especially to Vienna, has increased since the end of the war. The immigrants are mostly Jews, who have stayed in the capital and made money in a very short time. These "new rich", whose standard of intellectual culture is very low, devote their whole attention to the accumulation of wealth. At the same time, the aristocracy have left the city and are now scattered throughout Bohemia, Moravia, Poland, Hungary and Italy. The war has unfortunately taught us to place too much importance upon the goods of everyday life, and to neglect intellectual interests. The younger generation will be forced to continue living in this manner, since intellectual workers are no longer able to choose a vocation in accordance with their tastes.

The decline of the Austrian crown forces them to spend all their earnings on their immediate needs. We have had so long to do without milk, meat, eggs, butter and fruit that we now buy them as a sort of recompense due to ourselves, in spite of the high prices, whilst we are obliged to forgo intellectual pleasures. The younger generation prefers cinemas and detective novels of the Sherlock Holmes type. Intellectual workers have not merely suffered a loss of prestige generally ; they are no longer patronised to the same extent. The stars of the Opera and Burgtheater, orchestral conductors and fashionable musicians are able, by means of tours abroad, to earn enough money to live, but the average artist is forced to remain in the country itself and can at best vegetate.

The hours of work for artisans are fixed at eight hours under normal circumstances ; but the intellectual worker has no appointed hours and must do ten or twelve hours a day in order to improve his position. The workman receives better pay and can put in overtime, which is well remunerated. Further, he has another advantage over the intellectual worker in not having to pay so much as the latter for rent and clothing.

Workmen have opportunities of enforcing their demands and adapting them as the cost of food and other necessities increases. They have a means of putting pressure upon employers which is not open to intellectual workers, namely, the strike, by which they can hold up traffic, prevent the city being lit and heated, etc. They form the great bulk of the population (which numbers only six and a half million inhabitants), whilst intellectual workers are only a very unimportant fraction. Not merely is their pay lower than the wages of ordinary workmen,

but artists, musicians and writers must expect to find no sale for their works if they attempt to sell them at the current prices. The work done by artisans is necessary, whilst that of the intellectual workers can be dispensed with at need and hence he must be content with humble remuneration.

The two groups are organised. That of the manual workers possesses a highly disciplined organisation, which has by many years' experience become expert in the methods of class warfare; intellectual workers have only combined since the war and are divided amongst the three great political parties. These differences were brought out clearly by the new Austrian Constitution, established after the disaster. The working masses have obtained enormous political influence by the introduction of universal suffrage and constitute the decisive factor in the federal, provincial and municipal elections. Being formed of the parties which possess the great majority of votes, the Government is obliged to have regard to these factors in the Republic.

Among the three parties in Parliament the Social-Democrat party is closely allied to the workers, both by origin and by composition. The Christian-Socialist party is a little more powerful, but less homogeneous, than the Social-Democrats, since the Christian-Socialists rely on the conservative peasant in the country and on the small traders in the town. The weakest party, the "Grossdeutsche Volkspartei", includes the majority of intellectual workers. It represents the interests of professors, lawyers and doctors, although many of the latter are Jews and belong to the Social-Democrat party. The consequence of this political grouping is that intellectual workers are inadequately represented in Parliament. The Christian-Socialist party is obliged to display great deference to the workers, in order to attract them into its own ranks rather than let them drift towards the Social-Democrats. It is not always too friendly towards the intellectual workers, who are sometimes radicals with anti-clerical tendencies, although there are many among them who vote for the candidates of the right wing.

Forming as they do a large proportion of the senior Government officials, intellectual workers exercise considerable influence on the Government, especially when the head of the Ministry is a deputy who is not thoroughly familiar with Government business. The number of these officials is very considerable, especially in Vienna. Austria has even been described as a political monstrosity, with a head too big for its puny body. This is not, however, really the case. At the beginning of the thirteenth century, although the possessions of the Babenbergs were confined to half the area of modern Austria, Lower Austria, Styria and a part of Upper Austria, Vienna was one of the largest and richest towns in the German Empire. Throughout the whole Middle Ages the three great capitals — Prague, Cracow and Budapest — in the neighbouring kingdoms, though they were the residences of sovereigns who were patrons of the fine arts and centres of a flourishing trade, did not surpass Vienna. Even before 1526, the area of the neighbouring countries was larger than that of the Hapsburg dominions.

The large number of intellectual workers in the ministries is due to the return, after the national catastrophe, of the officials employed in the provinces of the former Austria (the Bukowina, Galicia, Bohemia and Moravia). The officials who returned to Vienna are far more numerous than those who left it for their native countries (Poland, Hungary, Italy), hoping to find some sort of post there. The closing of the German University at Czernowitz deprived many professors and officials of their livelihood. The dismissal of the officers of the former Imperial Army also swelled the number of the unemployed. Those who were not of German blood remained in the Succession States, but the majority came back to Austria and were unable to find employment. Thanks to their ability and intelligence, many of them found employment in industry and trade, whilst others became farmers and clerks; some of them emigrated and others became chauffeurs or artisans. "Beggars cannot be choosers." Obviously the demilitarisation and the dismemberment of the former Empire was bound to result in a plethora of intellectual workers at its centre, which produced more intellectuals than the non-German provinces.

Modern Austria, a tiny State carved out of a big one, needs fewer officials than formerly and can only offer them very modest pay. No new employees are engaged, and those who are not altogether indispensable are discharged or pensioned off. These measures have been the

cause of bitter disillusionment. The number of people who are unable to find a post increases from day to day. It is true that many intellectual workers have gone into banks, the number of which has grown rapidly ; but it is possible that the favourable business conditions consequent upon the war and the valuta crisis will disappear with the stabilisation of the Austrian Government's economic position, and in that case even posts of this kind will become difficult to obtain.

The State is unable to create posts for all intellectual workers, but it would be a serious mistake to oppose the development of intellectual work generally for this reason. No State in the world will ever possess too many intellectual workers. The latter should not ask the State to provide them with everything, but should themselves endeavour to discover a field for their activities and to become the pioneers of culture, in the highest sense of the word, in a new democracy. Private initiative has made vast conquests in many spheres where it works alone and unaided by the State — let me cite architecture, engineering, medicine and law — and holds out many prospects of further advance. There are private institutions which may be placed on a level with the various types of great public colleges, and which can supplement the work of the latter. Much can be done for trade by following the example of America and by founding a number of primary and secondary schools, such as exist in Germany. As regards health training, there can never be too many private undertakings for improving public health, undermined for so many years by under-nutrition and physical deterioration. Look at Great Britain, and see what enthusiasm has been shown in that country and what enormous sums have been expended upon the physical improvement of the race.

The new State dissolved the Army and did away with the engines of destruction. The army of the mind must now take up the work of reconstruction and create positive values to repair our national disaster. This is only possible at the cost of enormous efforts. The conversation of the working class and artisan families often turns on their dislike of work ; they can count on the doles given to the unemployed. The position of intellectual workers is a good deal worse. They do not receive a halfpenny from the doles, which cost the State millions a day, but turn their superior intelligence to good account by learning to make many objects which are indispensable to them. Many an intellectual worker at present binds his own books ; the bookbinder is too expensive. An intellectual worker often wears shoes which he has made himself, whilst his wife and daughters, who, for want of servants, do the household work, also make their dresses, their underwear and their hats. In this way they are even able to make up frocks by using old worn clothes, which no tailor would be able to turn to account.

The overcrowded condition of the professions has resulted in other remedies of a more radical nature — emigration to America and other countries overseas. As the United States have made difficulties since the war, preference has been given to South America. The emigration offices dazzled the eyes of intending emigrants with the promise of a future more favourable than it really was. Many officers hoped to acquire farms in the Argentine. They have had to undergo bitter disillusionment, success being possible only for those with capital. For workmen and artisans it is easier to find posts as servants, waiters, caretakers, etc. Musicians are in a position to earn their bread. A few doctors, sisters of charity, ex-naval officers, discharged on the dissolution of the Austrian Navy, have entered the service of the Netherlands in the Dutch Indies. Emigration amongst intellectual workers is more considerable in proportion to their numbers than amongst manual labourers.

It will be seen that conditions have altered in favour of manual labourers. Foreign countries were closed to Austrian professional men during the 1914-18 war and still remain closed. The worker has better opportunities of earning his living there. And nevertheless the intellectual worker has greater need of contact with foreign countries, because he must keep in touch with the progress of art and literature and receive new inspiration. I have already said that travelling abroad has become impossible owing to the depreciated exchange ; the position is the same in regard to the acquisition of intellectual "productions" — reviews, newspapers and books, which cost prohibitive prices. Even if we receive a gift from time to time, such gifts will no longer be the common property of intellectual workers. There have been great gaps in the public libraries ever since the war, and it is impossible to foresee the day when these will

be filled. We are also unable to procure special literature and foreign provincial reviews, as their price makes them unobtainable and the system of exchanges has not yet been revived.

We are unable to keep in touch with the progress achieved by the various countries in numerous fields. Similarly, we are unable to attend international congresses or to take part in art exhibitions. Co-operation and exchanges are rare, as is shown by the present position of architecture. Nothing has been built in Austria since the war. Only the great banks, which possess large financial resources, have been able to build. How can the architect develop his art if he cannot study what is being done abroad and if it has been impossible to build in Austria for some ten years ? The history of the arts teaches us that architecture develops internationally and that its influence spreads from one country to another. We may take as an example Gothic art and the Renaissance. If a modern style were to be created in America or any other country, Austria could not benefit by it, even if, owing to its simplicity of design, it satisfied our conditions of life. For any activity in this sphere a country must possess at home an adequate number of workers who have been properly trained for the work. The workshops of the Middle Ages and the studios of Michael Angelo and other Italian artists offer an example of this. There will be no revival of architecture in Austria for many a long day. The former Monarchy produced a great deal. The buildings in the baroque style in Vienna, the palaces in the Ringstrasse, are, as it were, fine old ancestors without descendants ; they represent extinct generations, foreigners without a future in the middle of a world which no longer understands them.

No simple houses even have been built in the last ten years, in spite of the urgent need. Intellectual workers are in an unfavourable position in the matter because they are forced to reduce the number of rooms they occupy to what is strictly necessary. When children marry they have no separate house, but are obliged to live with their parents in a limited space ; and, more than this, they possess neither furniture nor trousseaux, for that is all too expensive, and, if the young family has children in its turn, three generations have to live in a house which before the war was only large enough for the parents.

In conclusion, there has been a deterioration in all respects in the condition of intellectual workers. Every pleasure in life has vanished ; they have an overwhelming burden of sorrow and suffering, the psychical reaction of which is plain to see. Many people who have lost their fortunes have become mad. There is an increasing number of suicides, and many people renounce a life which seems to have lost all meaning and value.

II. PARTICULARS OF THE SITUATION.

A. UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES.

The universities in the former Austro-Hungarian Empire had reached a high stage of development. Vienna University had 11,000 students, and the universities at Gratz, Prague, Innsbruck and Czernowitz were also well attended. The most important colleges in Austria are the public colleges subsidised and controlled by the State. Their flourishing condition was due to the fact that they were organised in 1848-1850 on the lines of the German universities. Relations between the Austrian and German universities have subsisted unbroken ever since that time. For the purpose of maintaining their scientific standard, freedom of instruction and study was guaranteed by the law, while, in regard to appointments to vacant chairs, the faculties had the right to submit proposals to the Government, which, moreover, was itself at pains to attract the most distinguished professors from all German-speaking countries. The twenty-two German universities sent numerous professors to the Austrian universities. Similarly, although more rarely, chairs in Germany and Switzerland were offered to Austrian professors who had obtained distinction in some special branch of knowledge. The system of interchanges applied also to students. Austrian students attended courses in Germany and German students in Austria. Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia and the Balkan States (Serbia, Bulgaria and Roumania) also sent large numbers of students to Austria.

Let us now consider the results of the world war and the downfall of the Hapsburg Monarchy. During the war, there was a considerable decline in the number of students attending the more important colleges, as is shown in the following table :

	1912-13		1916-17		1918-19		1920-21	
<i>Vienna :</i>								
University.....	10,314	8,784	4,118	3,508	10,515	8,943	11,299	9,900
Technical college	3,143	2,588	625	423	4,309	3,555	4,826	
<i>Gratz :</i>								
University.....	2,151	1,935	906	717	1,949	1,442	2,337	2,259
Technical college	761	665	90	57	840	693	1,241	
<i>Innsbruck :</i>								
University.....	1,364	1,309	723	611	1,511	1,688	1,891	2,025

Every kind of university activity was impeded and curtailed by the war, since many of the representatives of education, professors, assistants, etc., were mobilised, either as officers in the reserve or as volunteers. The university buildings were converted into hospitals or placed at the disposal of the military authorities.

After the war, the universities became extremely overcrowded ; demobilised students resumed their interrupted studies or commenced them, so that their numbers were considerably swollen. Measures had to be taken for new arrivals. Special courses were organised and the scholastic year was divided into three quarter-year terms in order to compensate them for the loss of several half-year terms.

There has been no decrease since then in the number of students attending the universities and colleges. This is a surprising fact, as several provinces have been detached from Austria. The German university at Czernowitz no longer exists. The professors and officials there have returned to the colleges in Austria, while a few have remained at the new Roumanian university. Our universities have lost the large number of German students who came from Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia and who now go to the German university at Prague, in order to obtain degrees and diplomas which are recognised as valid in Czechoslovakia. The number of students attending Prague University has doubled.

Nevertheless, owing to the enormous influx of foreign students, there has been no decrease in the number of students in the Austrian universities and colleges (see Annex). Many Poles,

especially Jews, came to Vienna to study during the war ; similarly, the Balkan countries (Roumania, Bulgaria, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes) now send us numerous students. The *numerus clausus* instituted in Hungary and the difficulties experienced by many Jews in obtaining admission to the Polish universities have also sent a very large number of Hungarian and Polish students to Austria, where the rate of exchange is favourable. However, they have become something of a burden for a country as small as Austria. Although foreigners pay six times as much as Austrians, the expenses are not covered, since in certain exceptional cases the matriculation fees, etc., are reduced and each student costs the State more than he pays it owing to the enormous rise in the price of all educational requisites.

This is the real cause of the crisis which threatens all the universities and colleges : until 1922, the grants given by the State were the same as in pre-war days, whilst the prices of all articles, instruments, etc., had risen ; cotton-wool, bandages, instruments, etc., besides methylated spirits, chemicals, reagents, test tubes and copper wire, are much more expensive than before the war. The price of books, printed matter, paper, ink and pens has risen considerably. Before the war a sheet of paper used to cost a heller and a half ; it now costs 200 crowns ; a pencil, which used to be worth 10 hellers, is now priced at 1,565 crowns ; a small bottle of ink, which cost 20 hellers, is now as much as 1,850 crowns. No more books are purchased, as the grants are not large enough to pay for binding ; we are now hardly able to purchase reviews and publications. The two great libraries in Vienna, the National Library (the former Imperial Library) and the University Library, were obliged in 1916 to suspend the purchase of reviews published in the provinces. The National Library was formerly entitled by law to a copy of all books, etc., published in the Empire, but the law naturally no longer applies to the countries which have separated from Austria. Nobody can nowadays obtain the scientific reviews published in Germany and the Succession States. For a short time it was possible to obtain books cheap from Germany or even to borrow them, but now the cost of carriage is too high.

For four years we have been unable to buy foreign books or reviews. This is an irreparable loss. The rate of exchange after the catastrophe was so low that it was impossible to buy French, English, Italian or American books, or works published in Switzerland and Germany (one mark was at that time worth 70 crowns). The situation has remained unchanged in spite of the decline in the mark, German booksellers having adopted a policy of selling at higher prices. It is no longer possible for students in Austrian Universities to obtain an account of the actual position of scientific research. Ever since the beginning of the war (nearly ten years ago) Austrian men of learning have been unable to keep in touch with fresh developments. When they undertake research work, they never know whether the same piece of work has not been already done by one of their foreign colleagues. Research work never stops ; each result obtained contains the germ of new ideas, and a country which does not make constant progress soon drops out of the race. The publication of scientific works is beset with many difficulties, as publishers and printers demand high prices. The printing of sixteen pages cost 60 crowns before the war ; the same number of pages, printed on bad paper with poor type, now costs a million crowns. It is almost impossible to have a book printed unless the author pays part of the costs of publication. The universities have decided that the work of candidates for higher educational posts (*privatdozenten*) may be submitted in manuscript — a procedure which was never allowed in the old days. Being unable to publish anything, the university institutes — for instance, the Vienna University Institute of Mineralogy — are now quite unable to exchange their publications, as they used to do before the cost of postage became so high. The younger members of the universities in our country are placed in a disadvantageous position by this state of affairs, as the results of their labours remain entirely unknown.

Numerous Austrian professors and assistants used regularly, before the war, to visit research institutes abroad to familiarise themselves with new scientific methods or to complete work which they could not finish in Austria for instance, astronomical research. The former curator of the Vienna Academy of Science, — the late Archduke Rainer, founded a travelling scholarship of 5,000 crowns for this purpose. This sum to-day represents the price of three tram tickets in Vienna. The necessity of working in foreign institutes, however, is very keenly

felt, as Austrian scientific institutions, the Vienna Observatory for instance, can no longer buy apparatus or instruments, or even repair them, as repairs can only be carried out abroad.

The Technical Colleges (*e.g.*, at Gratz) are without certain essential machines and measuring instruments, which would have cost 12,000 crowns in time of peace, but which are now worth 180,000,000 paper crowns, a sum which the State can no longer afford to pay.

Several scientific institutes require larger premises. The new Vienna University Chemical Laboratory has been built, but is not yet fitted up. The laboratory, however, meets a need, as chemistry courses have been well attended since the war. While there were, in 1914, some 240 chemistry students, there are at present as many as 900. The professors of chemical technology have waited for fifteen years to be installed in their own premises. They have been given rooms in the new building, but, as the interior has not been equipped, they have not yet been able to use them.

Amongst medical institutes, mention may be made of the Pathologico-Anatomical Institute, which has long been waiting for the erection of a new building for its own use. Since 1820 it has owned a valuable museum. The present building, which is an old one, is, however, extremely insanitary, especially as the Institute of Medical Chemistry is also installed in it. This is dangerous for the health of the entire staff. Tuberculosis has claimed its victims. Professor Albrecht, the last director of the institute, succumbed to this disease. A year and a half ago two assistants in the institute contracted tuberculosis and were granted leave of absence. Other persons in the building suffer from tuberculous catarrh. There have been other cases of infectious disease, some of them fatal. The number of students is never less than 1,000 in each half-year term, as courses are also held in the Research Institute.

The University Clinic of Dermatology and Syphilidology will be unable, for lack of funds, to keep up its collection of casts ; it is unable to buy modern instruments for special researches and for instructional purposes, and has great difficulty in procuring medicines for patients.

The loss of the Zoological Institute at Trieste is also to be deplored. It is impossible to obtain the necessary material for zoological researches.

Students at the Institute of Archæology and Epigraphy are no longer able to undertake scientific expeditions. They are unable to obtain either reproductions in plaster or photographs of new discoveries in Greece, Italy and North Africa.

The Institutes of Philosophy and Pedagogics suffer from overcrowding.

A building is required by the Technical College at Gratz for the Electrotechnical Institute; much time is devoted in the Alpine provinces to the study of the electrification of mountain railways and the development of hydraulic power. The establishment of an Institute of Electrotechnics is an absolute necessity. It would also be advantageous if a new building could be erected for the School of Mines at Leoben.

The new building for the University at Innsbruck has not yet been completed, although the masonry work was finished some time ago and all that remains to be done is to finish part of the interior. It was proposed to erect a building for the Institutes of Zoology and Mineralogy, but these have had to remain in the old University buildings, where there is not enough room for them.

Before the war there was a scheme for erecting buildings for the large Vienna Polytechnic School in the Lainzerpark on the outskirts of the city, but on account of the war all that could be built were premises near the Aspangbahnhof for the School of Chemistry and the School of Engineering. In addition to the central building it was proposed to construct several smaller buildings costing 30 million paper crowns ; that sum now represents 420 milliards. (*Cf.* Dr. Golitschek: "Vorentwürfe für die Neubauten der Wiener technischen Hochschule auf Gründen nächst dem Aspangbahnhof." Separatabdruck der *Deutschen Wochenschrift für den öffentlichen Baudienst*, Wien 1919.) Over and above this expenditure, the cost of equipping the interior of the building, including machinery and instruments, would have to be met. These charges were estimated at the lowest at 50 % of the costs of construction. Nothing, however, has been finished. The number of students at the school, which was 3,000 before the war, rose to 5,000 in 1921-1922. The Chemistry Institutes are most inconveniently housed in the buildings of the former Military Academy. The development and comfortable installation of

the Institute of Physical Chemistry, the engineering workshops, the chair of Technical Mycology and the Institute of the Technicology of Fuel, along with the foundation of technical engineering laboratories, are the most urgent requirements, which must be satisfied if the organisation of studies is to conform to the legitimate exigencies of students attending lectures and the special importance attaching to technical science for the economic revival of Austria.

The Vienna Fine Arts Academy is confronted with the same difficulties as the University. It has almost as many students as before the war, 249 in 1913-14 and 227 (nine of them foreigners) in 1921. At present there are twenty students from the Balkans, Czechoslovakia and America. All higher educational colleges are badly heated and badly lit; this is disastrous for the academy as it seriously affects the models.

The academy has not been able to add to its collections of casts and costumes. The studio in which casts and models of heads, sketches, drawings and studies were made used to receive a grant of 3,000 crowns before the war; this has not so far been increased, although it represents only one-fifth of a gold crown. The principal requirement is life models. The State, however, can no longer afford even a small number of models for a few weeks in the year; pupils must pay for them themselves, and this is very rarely possible.

The art of sculpture is declining, as materials and tools are too expensive; the insignificant grants given are not even enough to pay for the conveyance of stone to the studio.

The special School of the Graphic Arts can no longer afford paper for printing or copper plates. Poor students could previously afford the auxiliary requisites for painting, but that is now impossible. The Rome Prize is no longer granted, as the money would not even be enough for a journey in the Austrian provinces. The total sum which the school would require to carry on its work would be 81,000 Swiss francs a year, and this is not even one-fifth of its pre-war income.

The situation of the Academy of Music and Art, the former Vienna Conservatoire, is much the same as that of the institutions previously mentioned. The number of pupils has increased by one-third since 1914, *i.e.*, from 900 to 1,200.

The grant given to the academy is inadequate. It is impossible to procure instruments, as a grand pianoforte costs 32 million paper crowns and horns and wind instruments almost two millions. The grant is hardly enough for repairing the strings of instruments and organ pipes. The academy would need at least the sum which was placed at its disposal before the war, *viz.*, 131,650 Swiss francs.

The Higher School of Agriculture and the Vienna Veterinary College are experiencing the same difficulties. The Consular Academy (formerly the Oriental Academy), which trains candidates for the diplomatic services, has to overcome serious difficulties of a financial nature. The State discontinued paying an additional grant in 1923. Nationals of all countries are allowed to study there. The total number of students at present is twenty-one — three Austrians, two Hungarians, five Serb-Croat-Slovenes, one Czechoslovak, one Pole, seven Germans, one Italian and one Roumanian.

The conditions of life of the professors employed in higher education are lamentable. Salaries have not risen in the same proportion as the cost of living. Even the best-paid professors receive only four million paper crowns, *i.e.*, 266 $\frac{2}{3}$ pre-war crowns, as taxes and contributions to the sickness insurance fund must first be deducted; this accordingly amounts to one-fifth their pre-war salary. Perquisites and class and examination fees are not sufficient to meet the expenditure which their rank and position imposes on professors. They are obliged to be members of a number of scientific societies and members of students' associations, to take tickets for the winter meetings of these associations, to buy books and to subscribe to reviews, if they wish to keep in touch with the progress made in their special branch of study. The State, however, retains part of the matriculation fees — which are now five times larger than formerly — and refuses to grant anything but a small fraction to the professors. They have accordingly to give additional lectures outside their ordinary periods of duty, and have

no time to take a walk, as employees do after the day's labour. The most that can be earned by lecture fees is four million and a half crowns; the majority of professors have to be content with the minimum — a million and a half. The largest possible amount that a professor can earn, including examination fees, is from nine to fourteen millions, and taxes have to be deducted from this. Ten annual subscriptions at 30,000 crowns each to scientific societies and ten founder member and honorary subscriptions at 50,000 make 1,300,000 crowns. Even those who have a balance of 10,000,000 for buying books can only buy thirty volumes a year, as scientific publications cost 300,000 crowns a volume and a simple binding 20,000, while a leather binding costs 100,000. Professors receive only one-fifth of their pre-war income; janitors (now called "subordinate employees") receive practically the same wages as formerly, and if they have children are paid almost as much as professors, seeing that the extra remuneration received by the latter, if they are married and have children, is so insignificant that it is not enough to pay their tram fares. As a tram fare in Vienna costs 1,700 crowns, and 2,000 crowns after half-past nine, they prefer to walk. All these restraints and limitations, the renunciation of all intellectual pleasures and the necessity of earning money outside their professional work are injurious to the productive powers of many intellectual workers.

It is at the moment extremely difficult to induce professors who are specialists to come from abroad. Certain Dutch (Wenkebach) and Swiss professors were giving lessons in Vienna just before the outbreak of war; there were German professors teaching in other universities or colleges in Austria. Notwithstanding all the endeavours of the educational governing body, several chairs have remained vacant for a number of years. There is no professor of Indian Civilisation in Vienna, a fact which Rabindranath Tagore was unable to comprehend when he came here to give a lecture at the University. There is only a single semitologist and no anthropologist at all. Professors in provincial universities frequently refuse a chair in Vienna owing to their apprehension of the high cost of living in the capital and heavier work due to the large number of students and the requirements of practical instruction. Younger men who have not yet obtained a post in their own countries, and who may or may not have passed their final teacher's examination, sometimes decide to come and teach in Austria; they do not, however, stay long and are soon called elsewhere or return home.

It is now almost impossible to keep artists of the first rank in the Vienna Academy of Music and Dramatic Art or in the Academy of the Plastic Arts. Artists of the standing of Sauer, Schreker, Van Leeuwen, Sevcik, Lalewicz have gone to live abroad. The decline in the mark has done something to redress the balance in favour of Austria, but this will only be a short-lived advantage and cannot compensate for the distrust with which many Germans view a country whose future appears to them uncertain.

Many professors, chemists, engineers, doctors and jurisconsults enter private concerns, in order to obtain better pay. Holidays have lost their charm since it has become necessary to spend them in town, and journeys which formerly offered no difficulty are now impossible. Holidays must be taken advantage of to earn extra money. The teachers engaged in German higher education in Czechoslovakia have no desire to come to Vienna, as they are better paid and the conditions of life are easier at home. Many of them have refused to come and teach in Austria, whereas some celebrated Austrian men of learning have settled in Czechoslovakia. The professor engaged in higher education in Czechoslovakia is able to travel for the purposes of study not only in Germany, but even in Italy and France, to buy books and to attend foreign scientific congresses, whilst his Austrian colleague is nowadays quite unable to do so. The opinion which was expressed in Parliament "that a washerwoman was more useful than a professor and should therefore be better paid" will be undying testimony to the inferior position assigned by one of our great parties, the Social Democrats, to university professors.

It should be remembered that artisans are given their tools and working clothes by their employers. The professor has to pay, not only for ink, pens and paper, but also for some of his books, and cannot wear threadbare clothes or worn linen. Whilst the workman receives the whole of his wages for his work, the university teacher has to spend a good portion of his salary on purchasing requisites for his work. Moreover, the wife, and frequently the children — even when quite young — of the workman are also wage-earners, whereas the professor's

wife cannot keep a shop ; she must be well dressed and in touch with all new productions in art and literature.

No other professional training lasts so long as that of the university teacher. Upon the conclusion of his ordinary course, and after he has written his thesis and obtained his doctor's degree, he enters on his special studies. Not less than two years and usually five to six are required in order to become a duly qualified professor in a university or college. Original scientific treatises have to be written. The candidate for a professorial chair sets out on his career in an institute by acting as tutor or an assistant. In many cases he receives no pay, or such pay as he does receive is too small to allow him to live on his salary for a single day. (The librarians in the training colleges of the Faculty of Philosophy in Vienna receive 4,000 crowns a month, *i.e.*, 27 Swiss centimes !)

Even on becoming, after some years' study, a qualified professor (*privat docent*), he still receives no salary and must look for a post. Many qualified professors teach in secondary schools or in special schools and others become librarians or archivists ; those who study the law become Government officials or judges. This makes a double tax on their strength and the eight-hours day is unknown. Having finished the work by which they ensure their daily bread, professors are obliged to give their time to scientific research work, the preparation of their courses, etc.

There were formerly travelling scholarships for talented young men who had taken their doctor's degree. These scholarships amount to only 1,000 or 1,500 crowns. There are no candidates for them, as the scholarship would not pay the postage of the applicant's letter. Similarly, scholarships for "*privat docents*" are so small that nobody could possibly live on them.

It has become extremely difficult to obtain a professorial chair. Men with the requisite qualifications must frequently content themselves with the title of supernumerary professor and undertake a course on a subject connected with their special branch of study. It is hardly possible to become qualified before thirty years of age and, generally speaking, it is ten years before a qualified man is appointed to a professorial chair. There are many professors who have all the requisite qualities, but who never obtain a chair and remain lecturers.

The position of lecturers and supernumerary professors has improved since 1921, but no manual labourer would devote as much time as they do in order to obtain a post. Great intellectual versatility and great idealism too are required in modern times for those who enter upon the career of a university professor, which brings much disillusionment and few advantages. Only the successful, those who have "*made good*", are ever heard of ; nobody ever remembers the failures. It is not difficult to understand why, in our times, a university career is becoming unpopular, and purely academic studies, and even medicine, are being abandoned. It has also been noticed that there is an increasingly large number of Jews among the younger professors, especially if we include those who have been converted to Christianity. Out of 113 *privat docents* in the Faculty of Philosophy at Vienna, there are 66 Aryans, 47 baptised and unbaptised Jews ; in the Faculty of Law out of 45 *privat docents*, 19 are Aryans and 26 baptised and unbaptised Jews ; in the Faculty of Medicine, 111 are Aryans and 129 baptised and unbaptised Jews.

Many doctors of medicine are anxious to become "*privat docents*" as the degree may be very useful to them. Few of them attempt to obtain appointment to a chair, but content themselves with acquiring after a few years the title of "*supernumerary professor*", as this is important for their medical career.

Before the war, young university teachers had opportunities of taking part in study tours abroad for the purposes of study ; not merely geographers, geologists, botanists and zoologists, but doctors, archaeologists, art historians, Egyptologists and semitologists travelled in Africa and Asia. Austrians were regularly able to take part in international scientific work on questions of geodesy, astronomy and geology, etc. That having now become impossible, our young men have lost all prospect of well-remunerated scientific work.

It has become more and more difficult to have scientific books printed ; many scientific reviews have suspended publication and others have had to cut down their size. In consequence, it is difficult to get anything at all published, short extracts in a review sometimes representing the fruit of many years' researches.

Students have been disastrously affected by the war and by the downfall of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Many of those who were called to the colours were wounded or made prisoners of war. This entailed the loss of several years' study. It was extremely difficult for them to continue their studies, as they were confronted with obstacles which did not formerly exist. Matriculation and laboratory fees have increased. Moreover, students are required to pay a subscription to the sickness-insurance funds and to the libraries. They must buy their paper, pencils, canvasses and colours and pay for their models out of their own pockets. This is all extremely expensive, especially books. Many students are obliged to spend a part of their time—half the day—in earning a livelihood. Their work suffers from it and their strength is overtaxed. There are many of them who can now afford only one meal in the twenty-four hours and consequently suffer from under-nutrition. Certain relief associations (more especially the two "mensæ" of the University) do their best by giving good meals at the moderate price of 4,000 crowns. This sum is, however, fairly large for a single meal; further, the students live in districts which are too far from the University for walking and tram-fares cost 1,700 crowns.

Private lessons would appear to be better paid when compared with pre-war charges; 15,000 crowns, however, only represent one pre-war crown and in those days the charge was two or three times higher. Most students live in small rooms, often in the basements. The rooms are dark, sometimes damp and impossible to heat. These disadvantages seriously impair their capacity for work and their health. Their clothes and shoes are worn out, sometimes beyond repair; it is almost impossible for them to buy new ones.

I should here like to offer our thanks to foreign countries for the help which they have given Austrian professors and students. The neutral countries, Sweden, Switzerland and the Netherlands, have led the way in this relief work. The dinner, at which professors, private docents and university and college assistants sit down together, has saved the lives of many, and the same may be said of the "mensa" (referred to above), at which thousands of students take their meals daily. The above two institutions were founded with the assistance of the United States. There is also a "breakfast fund". We have received help from Great Britain in the shape of clothes, linen and money. The work done by the Society of Friends has greatly alleviated our sufferings. Naturally, the foreign relief organisations (free holidays for students, etc.) have gradually stopped work. We must achieve the reconstruction of our country by our own efforts. We cannot expect everything to be done by others, nor must we indulge in the belief that foreign assistance will continue indefinitely.

The immediate consequences of this deplorable state of affairs are already becoming obvious. In view of the high cost and the long duration of studies, students naturally choose those subjects which will enable them to begin earning as soon as possible. There has accordingly been a great influx of pupils in the schools of commerce and the technical, medical, chemical and physics schools. The pure sciences, which are usually taken up solely out of enthusiasm for those subjects, have ceased to attract students in the old way. A man must be a great idealist to devote himself to these studies nowadays. There are signs of rationalist and materialistic tendencies amongst the young.

It has been observed that, as students are forced to conclude their studies as soon as possible, they confine themselves to what is strictly necessary, that is, to the obligatory classes for their special subjects, and that they no longer attend courses merely designed to give a liberal education. The effects will soon be perceptible: the vision of the mind will become contracted. As the students have been forced to look for additional work in order to earn a livelihood, attendance at many of the courses has become much less regular.

It must be stated that the standard of work is somewhat lower. The authorities have been more indulgent than formerly, and have attempted to make allowance for the war and for the considerable loss of time consequent upon it; allowance is made also for the long period of study and the financial position of the majority of candidates. *Humanitas humanitatum!*

Some attempt, however, is made to maintain the poise disturbed by the catastrophes which have overwhelmed Austria. The younger university generation has supported its hardships with a really impressive moral power and with obstinate tenacity, and has continued working in spite of the appalling conditions. The best evidence of its sterling qualities is furnished by the way in which it has put up with the overcrowding in the various institutions and the necessity everywhere for two students to work at a single place in the laboratories. There is often

a long queue of persons waiting until a place is free in the University libraries. Many poor students have had to work at night by candle-light.

B. MUSEUMS, LIBRARIES, ARCHIVES.

Most of the museums, libraries and archives are situated in Vienna, but there are a few in the provincial capitals of the Federation — Linz (Upper Austria), Gratz (Styria), Salzburg (Province of Salzburg), Klagenfurt (Carinthia) and Innsbruck (Tyrol).

1. Museums.

The most important are the former Imperial Museums at Vienna, which contain the collections of the Austrian royal house. Ever since the Middle Ages, the Hapsburgs had collected art treasures in Germany, Italy, Spain, the Netherlands and the East, which, according to the taste of the time, were arranged in special cabinets, galleries, medal cabinets and libraries. These collections, which are celebrated throughout the world, are of exceptional interest. The treasures they contain have been made accessible to the public by competent Government officials. Since the fall of the Monarchy, the museums have been enriched by the collection of Gobelin tapestries and State coaches and have been reorganised by experts on a more economical basis.

Special libraries, laboratories and studios, where a great deal of work is done, are attached to these State institutions. During the war, scientific researches were undertaken in the occupied territories and many treasures added to the collections. The fact that a considerable number of our works of art was claimed by foreign countries (Belgium, Italy and the Succession States) immediately after the defeat is proof of the value of these collections. The authorities have endeavoured to make them more accessible by means of publications and explanations given by guides.

These endeavours have, however, met with obstacles owing to the impoverishment of the State, which has so curtailed its subsidies that the older buildings can hardly be kept in repair, heated and lighted. The temperature is sometimes as low as 4° or 5°. Moreover, there is a lack of technical experts, of whom there were not very many even before the war.

The salaries of the officials amount only to 20 % of the pre-war rate and those of superintendents only to 50 %. The custodians are obliged to live on the assistance given by the American Relief Society. They are not in a position to visit foreign museums or to keep in touch with new methods. A proposal has been put forward to organise an interchange of custodians, but this would meet with serious difficulties. The administration of the museums has not been equal to its work ever since the break-up of the Empire; the only remedy for this situation would be the restoration of the autonomy of these institutions; their administration should be freed from the influence of political parties and the bureaucracy. Our museums are visited by people from all countries; international collaboration has, however, declined, as it is no longer possible to buy books abroad or to attend international congresses.

The *History of Art Museum* contains seven collections: (1) the Picture Gallery, (2) the Collection of Egyptian and Eastern Antiquities, (3) the Collection of Greek and Roman Antiquities, (4) the Greek and Roman Coin Room, (5) the Medal, Modern Coin and Paper Currency Room, (6) the Collection of Plastic and Applied Arts, (7) the Collection of Armour.

The museum is under the direction of a committee of experts, with two presidents elected every two years. Several studios, a large library and a yearly publication — the *Jahrbuch* (35th year) — are shared by all the collections, the *Jahrbuch* being sent abroad in exchange for similar publications. The museum was visited in 1913 by 331,000 and in 1922 by 233,000 persons.

<i>Budget in gold crowns :</i>		1914	1922
(a)	Expenditure (administration).....	88,000	255
(b)	Salaries and wages	181,000	61,000
		(91 employees) (147 employees)	
(c)	Grants in aid	70,000	30

The *Picture Gallery*, one of the largest in Europe, has been obliged to cede 65 pictures, most of them of the Italian school, and 2 triptychs by Hieronymus Bosch to Italy. Only a few

acquisitions have been made, through gifts, legacies, etc. In 1910-14, the *Collection of Egyptian and Eastern Antiquities* was enriched by the discoveries of the Vienna Academy of Sciences. It has not been possible to exhibit all the objects discovered owing to lack of accommodation. Some of the funerary monuments are still packed up in their cases. The whole grant is now devoted to studio work and it has been possible to make a few acquisitions only by means of modest gifts and exchanges.

The *Museum of Greek and Roman Antiquities* suffers from lack of space. The sculptures from Ephesus are still housed in the Belvedere Palace and those of the D'Este collection in the New "Hofburg"; it has hitherto been impossible to collect them in a single building. One of the posts of custodian has remained vacant since 1914; there is accordingly only one official to assist the director. Sixty-three works of art had to be ceded to the Italian Government in April 1921. A suitable building, adapted to modern requirements, in which all Greek and Roman works of art belonging to the State could be housed is required.

The *Greek and Roman Coin Room* is under a single official. A book on the coins of the Roman colonies is ready for printing, but there is not enough money for the printing of one indispensable plate. It is extremely difficult to add to this collection, of which French, British and Hungarian scholars avail themselves, as there are no carpenters or joiners who are capable of making the necessary cases. The present grant, amounting to 192,000 paper crowns, which is the equivalent of less than 13 pre-war crowns, would not be enough for the purchase of two copper coins.

The *Medals and Modern Coin Room* has been rearranged. A collection of silver coins, paper money, bank-notes, bills of exchange, cheques, stamps, etc., was started at the beginning of the war. In 1922, a collection of coins from the administration of the Mint (10,000 items) and a studio were added. The administration of the Mint undertakes the preservation of public monuments illustrating the history of coinage and numismatics and has co-operated in important international publications, for instance, the "*Corpus nummorum Italicorum*" and the "*Monumenta artis Germaniae*".

The *Collection of Plastic and Applied Arts* is one of the largest in the world; it is composed of a selection of the best examples from the Ambras Collection (Tyrol), the Imperial Treasury, and the cabinets of coins and Greek and Roman antiquities. The following smaller collections are attached to this collection: (1) The Imperial Treasury — that is to say, the collection of insignia belonging to the Holy Roman Empire and to the Imperial House of Austria; (2) the collection of ecclesiastical works of art; (3) the former Imperial treasure of the Church of the Capucines; (4) the D'Este collection; (5) the Gobelins collection; (6) the collection of old musical instruments. Information regarding these collections will be found in the works of Schlosser ("*Die Schatzkammer*", 1918), Baldass ("*Die Gobelinsammlung*", 1920), Planiscig ("*Die Estensische Kunstsammlung*", 1917), Schlosser ("*Die Sammlung alter Musikinstrumente*", 1920). All the above collections are now reduced, since a very large number of works of art had to be ceded to Italy in 1919 and 1921. The State grant is too small to allow of new acquisitions.

The *Collection of Armour*, which dates from the time of the Emperor Frederick III (died 1493), was divided upon the death of Charles V between the Spanish and Austrian branches of the Hapsburgs. Ferdinand of Tyrol enlarged it and Rudolf II bought the Austrian section. The Ambras collection was added to the Vienna collection in 1806.

After the fall of the Hapsburg Monarchy, the collection of coaches and harness, another of ceremonial costumes and Court liveries (in the former Hofburg, not yet open to the public owing to lack of room and the inadequate grant) and a third of hunting weapons, which, for the same reason, have not yet been arranged, were added to the museum. The cession to Italy and Belgium in 1921 and 1922 of certain valuable objects has also reduced this collection. The director, Dr. August Gross, is preparing for publication several guides to the above collections; the funds at his disposal amount to only 21 $\frac{1}{4}$ gold crowns.

The collection of *prints*, known as the "*Albertina*", is celebrated throughout the world. It was formed by the amalgamation of the former "Albertina" collection and the collection of prints in the former Imperial library. The two collections were founded by Duke Albrecht von Sachsen-Teschen, son-in-law of the Empress Maria-Theresa, and by Prince Eugene of Savoy respectively. The Prince's collection was acquired by the Court upon his death. The "Albertina" contains examples of every type of graphic art, from the fourteenth century onwards:

drawings, prints, engravings, etchings, lithographs, woodcuts. There is a studio for restoration work attached to it. The number of visitors is considerably higher than the pre-war figure, having risen from 12,000 to 18,000. Additions to the collection have only been possible thanks to grants and gifts. Funds for new acquisitions, which were 40,000 gold crowns in 1913, have sunk as low as 280 gold crowns, which is not enough for the purchase of a single drawing. Among the gifts made to the collection we may note drawings by Oswald Kutschera-Woborski, the famous historian of art, and by the British artist, Frank Brangwyn.

The *Museum of Art and Industry*, founded by the State in 1864, is organised on the lines of the South Kensington Museum in London. It was the first museum of art and industry on the Continent and its object is to stimulate the taste for the applied arts. It endeavours to enlist the support of the public and the art industries for this object.

It includes also a library and a collection of artistic designs (ornaments, studies in design, etc.) ; a school of industrial art was installed in the new buildings at Ferstel in 1871.

The museum comprises the following collections : textiles (woven fabrics, embroideries, lace, Oriental carpets, Gobelin tapestries), furniture, sculpture, articles made of precious metals, pewter, wrought iron, glass, ceramics (earthenware, stoneware, faience, and porcelain). The museum publishes a review known as *Kunst und Kunsthandwerk* and has issued since 1914 a small guide to the collections. The museum exercised its influence in two ways : (1) by means of *exhibitions* ; there have been 200 exhibitions of industrial art of all kinds in fifty years, and the Christmas exhibitions especially have established contact between the public and artists ; (2) by *lectures*, given every year during the winter months by archaeologists and by Austrian and foreign historians of art and industrial art. There were also special courses consisting of four lectures given by the museum officials.

With the increase in the collections the premises became inadequate. An annex was built in 1908 containing lecture-rooms.

The activities of the museum have been curtailed as it now only has 130,000 crowns (8-2/3rd gold crowns) at its disposal. The custodians are unable to travel abroad for purposes of study and the museum can no longer take part in auctions. It is also unable to invite foreign professors, while even professors from the provinces find it difficult to come to Vienna, since the museum is unable to provide for their travelling expenses and for the fees they are entitled to demand. Owing to the reduction in the number of officials, it is now impossible to make an adequate study of the collections. There were in 1913 eight custodians, four employees in the administrative services and 33 subordinate employees ; in 1922, there were six custodians, three employees in the administrative services and 23 subordinate employees. Owing to the shortage of superintendents, many rooms can no longer be opened to the public.

In 1903, a Museum of Baroque Art, known as the "Modern Gallery", was established to shelter the collections of modern Austrian or foreign works. In 1912, it was given a new name — the "Austrian State Gallery" and works in the Gothic and Baroque styles and foreign works of art were added. This programme had to be curtailed after the breaking up of the Empire, but it is proposed to place all Austrian works in the Baroque style in the lower story of the Belvedere Palace, while the upper story would be reserved for modern art from Fueger to Makart. A new building had been planned and the ground had already been found, but the project had to be abandoned. The Ministry of Public Education now only appropriates insignificant sums to the museum, and private gifts are inadequate. The museum publishes the *Mitteilungen aus der österreichischen Staatsgalerie*, which is exchanged in return for publications issued at Basle, Berlin, Bremen, Hamburg, Bournemouth, Detroit and Zurich.

The *Austrian Army Museum* had its origin in the former Imperial Arsenal, which was converted into a museum during the Seven Years' War (1756-1763). It became a military establishment in 1885. An organisation was created during the war for the purpose of collecting and arranging all documents intended to illustrate the history of the war. There were 150 persons engaged at that time on this work, but now their number is reduced to twenty. The museum also contains collections illustrating the history of civilisation and of the technical arts, a gallery of war pictures, studios for repairing fancy embroideries, metal work, fire-arms,

a gunsmith's workshop, a collection of leather work, a furniture-repairing shop, etc. Before the war, the museum used to publish a review, known as *Mitteilungen des K. u. K. Heeresmuseums*, and a catalogue (4th edition, 1903). Its income, which was 39,180 gold crowns in 1914, is at present not more than 414 gold crowns, and the work can only be continued with difficulty. Moreover, there is not enough room to house the collection.

The City of Vienna Historical Museum was incorporated with the Municipal Library under the title of "Municipal Collections". It includes the following : (a) a collection of armour from the fifteenth century until 1866 ; (b) a collection of pictures belonging to the Viennese schools ; (c) a topographical collection, consisting of plans of Vienna executed by hand or engraved or printed, and sculptures from St. Stephen's Cathedral, stained glass, etc. ; (d) a collection of coins and medals ; (e) a collection illustrating the history of civilisation, rooms containing furniture and relics of great poets (Grillparzer) and composers (Brahms), flags and relics of the former Artisans' Guild ; (f) a collection of portraits and busts of famous Viennese citizens. The following annexes are attached to the museum : (1) The Schubert Museum in the house where Schubert was born, Nussdorferstrasse 54 ; (2) the Haydn Museum in the house where Haydn died, Haydngasse 19 ; (3) the Vindobona Museum illustrating Roman Vienna, Rainergasse 13, which contains Roman antiquities found in the neighbourhood of Vienna. The erection of a new wing to the museum was interrupted by the war and the fall of the Monarchy. The rooms containing the collection of armour have been closed to the public since 1914. The museum at one time had five custodians ; now there are only two. Its income, which in 1913 amounted to 25,000 gold crowns, had sunk to 167 crowns in 1922.

The *Natural History Collections* are situated on the "Ring" (former Imperial Museum) and are divided into five sections : (1) Zoology ; (2) Botany ; (3) Mineralogy and petrography ; (4) Anthropology and ethnography ; (5) Geology. These collections were originally "Imperial Cabinets" ; they were amalgamated in 1885 and called "Imperial Natural History Museums". The Zoological Garden at Schoenbrunn constitutes an annex to the museum. The lack of funds, which makes it impossible to buy the necessary books, is felt here as elsewhere. Even the plans obtained by means of exchanges cannot be suitably mounted since the paper required for this purpose is too expensive. There is some likelihood of the publications being suspended. Owing to the restricted number of employees and the price of raw materials, especially of glass, it is, for instance, now impossible to prepare transparent sections for the mineralogical-petrological department. The anthropological collection contains objects from foreign countries, more especially the celebrated Mexican antiquities sent to Charles V by Montezuma in 1520. It was enlarged to hold the collections made in the course of numerous expeditions undertaken by Giesecke in Greenland, Huegel in Asia, J. Natterer, Holub, Lenz, Baumann in Africa, Siebold in Japan, Finsch and Reischek in the Pacific, Poesch, Heger and others. Owing to lack of space, only a small portion can be used for purposes of study.

A portion of the D'Este collection was added to the above in 1918. The Institute for research into the Glacial Period was founded in 1922. The object of this institute is the investigation and elucidation of the problems of the glacial period by means of lectures, discussions and publications. The Anthropological Society places its offices at the disposal of the institute and assumes the cost incurred by the exchange of publications. The institute has suffered greatly from the dismemberment of the Empire, important districts for archæological research, such as the Bukowina, Istria and Carniola, having been lost. It is impossible to carry out satisfactory scientific work on ethnography and prehistoric subjects if such work is to be restricted to Austria within her present limits. Owing to the shortage of funds and staff, the collection cannot be installed and arranged on modern lines in a wing of the "Neue Burg". The grant made to the museum is now reduced to 328 gold crowns. Lectures are given on all collections in the Natural History Museum ; the geological collections and the Library are visited by specialists, mostly foreigners.

The *Collections of Lower Austria* consist of archives and a library formed by the amalgamation in the eighteenth century of various specialised libraries. The Lower Austrian Provincial Museum, which was founded in 1902, is situated at Vienna (Wallnerstrasse 8), and is to be installed in the former Clary Palace (Herrengasse 9), which is larger and better adapted for housing these collections. Acquisitions have had to be reduced, again for financial reasons.

The *Folklore Museum*, which was founded recently, is a private institution belonging to the "Verein für österreichische Volkskunde" (Folklore Society). The museum contains important collections of costumes and household utensils. It publishes a review ; twenty-five volumes and fourteen extra numbers were issued up to 1919.

The objects exhibited in the museum have mainly been collected in German Austria ; but Czech, Slovak, Polish, Ruthenian, Serb-Croat-Slovene and Roumanian ethnology are also represented, together with German, Swiss, French, Italian, Russian, Polish and Balkan art and civilisation. This museum accordingly contains collections which are unique. It was founded by Herr Haberlandt and his son. The younger Herr Haberlandt collected objects of great value in Albania during the war. The museum was installed for twenty years in the Bourse, and was transferred in 1917 to the former palace of Count Schönborn. It was formally opened in 1920. The museum was enlarged and extended and employs three times as many persons as formerly. Before the war, its income amounted to 40,000 Swiss francs ; in 1921, it fell to 1,000 francs, and the authorities were forced to reduce the number of lectures, publications, etc.

There is a *Provincial Museum* at Linz, in Upper Austria, founded in 1835, an offshoot of the Francisco-Carolinum Museum. It is one of the oldest of the provincial museums. Owing to the impoverishment of the middle classes and especially the intellectuals, the museum association was unable to support it after the war. In 1920, it became the property of the province of Upper Austria. The collections, which are housed in a single building, consist of a large library and art and scientific collections. Private donations are now rare, since the donors belonged either to the aristocracy or to the middle classes, which are no longer wealthy. The income, which was 79,228 gold crowns in 1913, fell later to 13 $\frac{1}{3}$ gold crowns. It is impossible to provide for the institution's requirements. The publication of catalogues has been suspended for some time ; a new edition would be too expensive.

The collection of prints should be reorganised, to save the more valuable of them from deterioration. Similarly, the pictures should be rehung. Half the collection of national and provincial costumes is buried away in the vaults, as glass cases are too expensive. The numismatic collection is imperfect.

The prehistoric collection in the museum, which enjoys an international reputation (Hallstadt civilisation), should be rearranged on another plan ; excavations have had to be discontinued, although extremely interesting results were anticipated.

The natural and physical science collections, which latterly have been enlarged, at present suffer from lack of room ; the twelve voluntary assistants have to make the best they can of the limited space at their disposal. The Caves Museum (caves containing exhibits discovered during the building of Linz Railway Station) was founded in 1916.

There is a general shortage of instruments of all kinds ; there are no microscopes for the study of minerals, no stone-cutting machine and no goniometer ; the photographic equipment and workshops leave much to be desired.

Thirty thousand Swiss francs would be required to meet the needs of the collections of the history of art and civilisation, and 60,000 Swiss francs for those of the natural history collection.

The *Graz Provincial Museum*, or "*Joanneum*", was founded in 1811 by the Archduke John of Austria ; it is under the control of the Styrian Government and is managed by a governing body. Its object is to give an extensive survey of the development of the history and civilisation of Styria and its inhabitants, and of the natural products of the province. It is intended to promote knowledge of the province in all branches of science and art. The purpose of the collections is to instruct the dilettante and to interest intellectuals no less than men of learning, tradesmen and farmers. The museum comprises the following collections : (1) a museum of history and of applied arts ; (2) a picture gallery ; (3) a print room ; (4) a collection of Greek and Roman antiquities ; (5) a geological collection ; (6) a mineralogical collection ; (7) a zoological and botanical collection ; (8) an army arsenal and museum ; (9) a folklore museum. The provincial archives, which are under an independent administration, and the library are attached to the Joanneum. The subsidy, which amounted to 20,487 crowns in 1913, has now sunk to 11,900 paper crowns (8 crowns) ; there can accordingly be no question of making new acquisitions. The excavations, which, in 1913, brought to light the Roman town of Flavia Solva, near Leibnitz, together with an amphitheatre and circumvallation, have had to be

suspended ; even the objects which have been found there cannot be properly exhibited. The army museum, too, cannot be arranged in an appropriate manner. It is proposed to turn the lateral wing of the museum into a small open-air museum (the arbour of a public-house (*Wirtslaupe*), smithies, brass foundries, weavingsheds), and since the museum is an old monastery, there would be a rustic Styrian cemetery behind the church. The buildings on the other side of the court might be converted into lecture rooms and the old cellars into a museum of viniculture.

The Innsbruck Museum or "*Ferdinandeum*". The Tyrol-Vorarlberg Museum, which is known as the "*Ferdinandeum*", is a privately owned institution, the object of which is to raise the standard of scientific and artistic knowledge in Tyrol and Vorarlberg, and more especially to collect and preserve specimens of the natural products and of the science and art of the country of special interest to the inhabitants. The collections in the museum include : (1) A library containing printed works, manuscripts and maps of Tyrol and Vorarlberg ; (2) an art collection ; (3) an historical and archæological collection (Roman milestones, sarcophagi, monuments, coats of arms, seals, coins, documents and armour). There are also natural history collections (fauna, minerals and flora of Tyrol and Vorarlberg), and a collection illustrating varieties of timber, as well as natural curiosities.

The Carinthian Natural History Museum was founded in 1847 by the Carinthian Agricultural and Industrial Society ; it ceased to be controlled by the Association in 1871, and became known as the "*Carinthian Provincial Natural History Museum*". Thanks to the generous help given by the Savings Bank, a new museum was built in 1879, known as the "*Rudolfinum*". The first floor houses the Natural History Museum and the second floor the Historical Museum. The first Yearbook of the museum appeared in 1852 ; there were twenty-nine issues down to 1918. No more have been published since owing to lack of funds. In 1863, the Association, with the assistance of the Carinthian Historical Society, resumed publication of *Carinthia*, a review which was founded in 1811, and was subsequently divided into two parts, one dealing with history and the other with natural history.

The Association possesses its own library and acts as custodian for that of Count Goëss, which is stored in the same building. It possesses also a small mineralogical and chemical laboratory, a modest zoological laboratory, a botanical garden containing a very full collection of Alpine and foreign plants, and a small conservatory. It also owns the largest portion of the Alpine Museum, more especially the relief maps, among which we may mention the famous map of the Glockner, modelled in 1894 by Paul Oberlecher. The directors and experts of the "*Landesfachstelle für Naturschutz*" (Provincial Bureau for the Protection of the Beauties of Nature) all co-operate in the work of the museum. During the war, the Association contrived to carry on, as it was managed by the members of the governing body, who received no fees. Lectures have been given there regularly every winter ever since 1848. The museum owns more than 1,400 photographic films, which it lends to other societies for their lectures. It includes also a meteorological station. The museum's activities were curtailed by the war. The "new rich" take no interest in it and the middle classes are no longer in a position to contribute. The lectures have been suspended owing to lack of funds to meet heating and lighting expenses ; there are not enough librarians or copyists for the library ; the collections remain stationary ; much important work fails to appear in print. The Federal, provincial and communal governments are no longer able to assist the Association. The collections require reorganisation and the Alpine Museum, which is at present housed in the Chamber of Commerce, should be combined with the Historical Museum.

The Klagenfurt Historical Museum was founded by the Carinthian Historical Society in 1844. It comprises several collections illustrating history, the history of art and of civilisation (prehistoric, Roman and mediæval objects, collections of Roman milestones and coins) ; it also comprises a picture gallery and photographic studios. An annex was founded in 1913 and 1914 at Teurnia (St. Peter-in-Holz) to house objects found in the excavations in the neighbourhood, which were interrupted at the beginning of the war as were those at Virunium. The historical section of the review *Carinthia*, has had to be curtailed for the same reason. The *Monumenta Historica Ducatus Carinthiae*, by Dr. Jacksch, five volumes, 1896-1906 (covering the period between 811 and 1269), can no longer be published.

The City of Salzburg Museum is a provincial museum analogous to those described above, and labouring under the same difficulties.

The "*Mozarteum*" at Salzburg was founded in 1846 by the Cathedral Musical Society and the Conservatoire of Music. An international endowment fund was created in 1869, known as the "*Mozart-Stiftung*"; in 1881, the Cathedral Musical Society ceded the Mozarteum to the "*Mozart-Stiftung*" under a contract. Owing to the foundation of the "*Mozart*" societies in Austria and abroad and the endeavours made by these associations, the "*Mozarthaus*" was built in 1914 and the house where the great composer was born was acquired in 1917. Since the war, the title "*Mozarteum International Association*" has had to be changed to "*Mozarteum*". This institution is devoted to the cult of Mozart and to his works and to the encouragement of music as an art in general. Its ideals find expression in the artistic performance of the master's works, in musical festivals and the foundation of as complete a collection as possible of his works (*Mozartina*); it also ensures the preservation of the "*Magic Flute*" cottage on the Capucine Hill and the enlargement of the Mozart library, and provides facilities for the study of music by talented but poor students. Every year during the Conservatoire holidays Frau Lili Lehmann, the celebrated Berlin singer, gives a course at the Mozarteum, which is attended mainly by artists from abroad (Great Britain, France, United States, Netherlands, Sweden, Russia, Germany and Czechoslovakia). The Women's International League held a congress in August 1912, at the Mozarteum, in which all countries took part. The war has put an end to these meetings. The great festival which was to have taken place in 1914 at the opening of the Mozarthaus was countermanded, and the opening took place without any ceremony. The "*Mozart*" societies have been dissolved. There were twenty of them in Germany, and one each in London, Copenhagen, Rotterdam, Berne, St. Petersburg, Cairo and Milan. The annual reports sent in by the "*Mozart*" societies have been suspended, the printing costs being too high. Although the Federal, provincial and communal Governments gave it their support, the Conservatoire was unable to survive. All employees were discharged on January 1st, 1922, and the National Council decided to convert the Conservatoire into a State institution. A "*Mozart*" week was held from August 1st to 10th, 1921, when ten concerts of Mozart's works were given before an audience consisting of a large number of foreigners, and this gives some hope for the future. Two important concerts were held in 1922, when Mozart symphonies were performed in the Hall of the Mozarteum, with Richard Strauss conducting, and seven concerts were given by the International Association of Chamber Music. The audience included artists and representatives of all countries. British, French, Italian, American, Swedish, Spanish, Hungarian, Czechoslovak, German, Russian and Polish works were performed, the artists often playing works by their own compatriots.

The activities of the Mozarteum are limited owing to the shortage of money for the purchase of foreign reviews and works on Mozart. The issue of the new edition of Köchel's catalogue, containing the results of the more recent researches of Wyzewa and St.-Foi, has had to be postponed. It has been impossible to preserve the house in which Mozart was born in its original condition. The "*Mozart*" annual review will be published for the first time in 1923, under the editorship of Abert, by the "*Drei Masken Verlag*" of Munich.

2. Libraries.

The *National Library at Vienna* is the most important of the libraries. The former Imperial Library, which belonged to the reigning house, is one of the oldest in Europe. It was founded by Ferdinand I at the beginning of the sixteenth century and is formed of the collections of the Hapsburg Princes who lived outside Vienna (at Wiener-Neustadt, Innsbruck, Ambras and Graz) and of men of learning, such as the humanists Nidbruck, W. Lazius, Augerius Busbeck, Sambucus, and of the monasteries suppressed by Joseph II in 1782.

Owing to their position in history and to their political and family relations with Italy, Belgium and the Netherlands, the Hapsburgs were able to collect objects of great value, especially illuminated manuscripts. The Fugger Library was acquired in 1656 and the Ambras Library in 1666. Later additions were the Greek and Oriental manuscripts (Hammer-Purgstall, Glaser), musical manuscripts and the celebrated collection of papyri acquired in 1899. In addition to the printed-book section, there are collections of manuscripts, music, prints, papyri and geographical maps. The print collection has been removed and incorporated with the

“Albertina”. The “Familienfideikommissbibliothek” of the Hapsburgs, containing very valuable portraits, has been joined to the library. The nucleus of a theatrical library was created by the acquisition of the collection formed by Thimig, the ex-Director of the “Burgtheater”, but, owing to a reluctance to remove it from the celebrated hall built in the baroque style by Fischer von Erlach, there has never been enough room for this collection. The arrangement of the library in new premises (from 1900 to 1906) made it possible to convert old cellars into vaults for the storage of books and to fit out a magnificent reading-room (the Chapter room of the Augustines). It is very regrettable that no new building was erected at a time when it would still have been possible. The following annexes are attached to the library. During the war a start was made with the formation of a collection of works illustrative of the war, as also the theatrical archives, a photographic studio, a studio for the restoration of manuscripts, a bibliographical information office containing a complete catalogue of all Austrian libraries. The libraries of the City of Vienna Historical Association (formerly the Municipal Antiquities Association), of the Numismatic Society and the Academy of Sciences are under the management of the National Library. The collection of music and papyri was housed in 1920 in the former palace of the Archduke Frederick. The geographical maps in the “Albertina” were added to the geographical collection. In 1919 to 1920 various manuscripts and incunabula had to be ceded to Italy. The new law on the compulsory deposit of books (1922) authorises the National Library to receive two copies of all printed matter and four copies of reviews. In this way it has been possible to organise a system of exchange with Zürich, London, Paris, Prague, the Ibero-American Institute and with the “Notgemeinschaft” (Emergency Association) of the German scientific libraries. Further, the publications of the Vienna Historical Association and of the Numismatic Society are exchanged with foreign countries. The manuscript section exchanges duplicates of facsimiles. The studio arranges for exchanges of photographs between Austrian and foreign men of learning. Courses and lectures are given at the library and exhibitions organised. The catalogues of the exhibition of the Art of the Book in 1916, of the Theatre Exhibition in 1922, and the following books on the history of the library: O. Smital, “Die Hofbibliothek” (1920), Museion, “Veröffentlichungen aus der National-Bibliothek”, vols. 1 to 5, Publication of Facsimiles, “Das Xylographische Symbolon Apostolicum” (1923), “Die Chronik von Jerusalem” (1923) and H. Gerstinger, “Die griechische Buchmalerei”, have been published since the war.

The following are the difficulties confronting all libraries at the present time:

1. Lack of room, which prevents the classification of new acquisitions;
2. Shortage of personnel; many employees have been discharged and it is impossible to engage new ones;
3. Lack of funds, the grants being too small to make even the most necessary purchases possible.

The rise in the price of binding is a serious problem for all libraries. Nevertheless, greater use is made at present of public libraries, as no one has the money to buy books. Readers have become more numerous and many persons of indifferent education waste the librarians' time. The latter are overwhelmed with work which could be done by subordinate employees.

The exchange of duplicates and the establishment of an international loan system would be to the advantage of everybody. Libraries in Austria have received gifts of money from Germany, Switzerland, Denmark, U.S.A., Great Britain and France; but the great gap made in our collections in consequence of the war cannot be filled.

The same is the case with the *University Library*, founded in 1777 by Maria-Theresa; it is used for scientific research and also as a public library. In 1913 to 1914 it was subsidised to the amount of 58,928 crowns and in 1920-21 to the amount of 525,746 paper crowns, i.e., 35 gold crowns.

The library of the *Academy of Music and Dramatic Art* contains opera scores and orchestral and choral music, but is, generally speaking, inadequate. It contains none of the principal works on the theory of music, no study of sources and none of the new publications of musical literature in English, French and Italian.

The *Municipal Library* contains works on the artistic history and development of Vienna and works by musicians of the first rank, which it owes to Beethoven, Bruckner and Schubert ; the printing of the manuscript catalogue has had to be suspended and the catalogues of printed matter cannot be published. The *Popular Library*, founded in 1920 (Villa Wertheimstein), is under the management of the Municipal Library.

The *University Libraries at Graz and Innsbruck* are also used as public libraries. Innsbruck University was forced to cede valuable manuscripts to Italy. There is only one public library at Linz and this is the sole library in Upper Austria and is in a lamentable condition. Many of the rooms require shoring up, the ceilings are in danger of falling in, the reading-room is dark, nothing can be effectively protected against fire or theft, and manuscripts and collections (830 incunabula and 20,000 drawings and maps) are exposed to the effects of the weather. The plan for constructing a new building has had to be given up, although the lack of room is so serious that the only librarian has to use a store-room as his office.

The *Klagenfurt Public Library*, founded in 1774, possesses, besides its circulating library, an educational library, the libraries of the Doctors' Association, Engineers' Association, and of the Carinthian Section of the Alpine Club.

The *Salzburg Students' Library*, which is the only public library in the province of Salzburg, was founded, at the same time as the Library of the Benedictines, by Archbishop Marcus Sitticus in 1619. He endowed it with a sum which amounted to 3,000 crowns in 1914 and has now fallen to 250,000 paper crowns, *i.e.*, 17 gold crowns. This sum would not even suffice for the purchase of the paper required for the index cards, and the copies of books which publishers must compulsorily send to the library cannot be bound. The library is in close touch with the Provincial Geographical Society.

In Styria, there is, in addition to the University Library, a *Provincial Library*, founded in 1811 at the same time as the "Joanneum" museum, which supplies it with funds for purchasing books. The Styrian History and Natural History Societies forward to the library the publications of Austrian and foreign scientific associations.

3. Archives.

The administration of the Austrian State archives before the war left nothing to be desired, as it was conducted in accordance with a long-established tradition ; the archives were used by men of learning and specialists, as well as by the public, and were under the direction of competent officials. The treasures accumulated by the House of Hapsburg during its great historical past were of incalculable value for Austrian and foreign scholars. Thanks to the efforts of a highly efficient staff, it was possible to issue extremely important publications on the political, administrative and economic development of Austria and her provinces.

The situation, however, has greatly changed since the world-war and the break-up of the Empire. On the one hand, the number of documents has considerably increased, so that it is difficult to find room for them, and on other, important documents have had to be handed over to the Succession States. While the collections have been enlarged and the necessity of making them accessible to the public entails heavier work for the archivists, the number of the latter has been reduced. There were seventy officials before the war and to-day there are only forty-five. Three or four will shortly be dismissed. Further, certain employees in the Chancellery have been discharged and their work will be undertaken by the archivists, who will then not have enough time for their own work. It is to be hoped that this policy of discharging staff will not be continued, as the archives in Austria, and especially those in Vienna, have always been much used by foreign scholars.

The archives need money to fill the gaps in their reference libraries, and especially to resume the printing of catalogues and other similar works which have been completed but not yet published.

The principal archives are the *Archives of the House of Hapsburg, of the Imperial Court and of the State* (Haus-, Hof- und Staats-Archiv) at Vienna, which contain not only documents relating to the House and Court of the Hapsburgs but also the archives of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. Other archives have been incorporated with them in the course of time—for example, the archives of the former Holy Roman Empire, of the Chancellery of the Imperial Cabinet and

Higher Court Officials. A review entitled *Historische Blätter*, to which foreign scholars contribute, is published quarterly.

The photographic studio, in which an expert was employed up to 1914, has been shut down owing to the lack of heating, which is injurious to the documents.

The Vienna War Records Office, founded in 1808 by the Archduke Charles and incorporated in 1888 with the General Staff's "Office for the History of War", became a civil institution in 1920. They contain, in addition to the old documents of the former "War Council" and of the later Ministry of War, a very complete collection of documents relating to the world war. They further contain a valuable collection of geographical maps and one of the most celebrated military libraries in the world, as well as the records of the former Austrian Navy and of the Military Courts. The Records Office has had to suspend its very extensive pre-war work owing to lack of funds. Most of the rooms are dark and have to be lighted before four o'clock in the afternoon. There is no lighting installation, so that it is only possible to work there for a few hours a day.

The Archives of the Imperial Chamber of Finance contain documents on the economic development of Austria; they are inadequately housed.

The Archives of the Ministries of the Interior and of Justice, in which the records of the former Imperial Chancellery, of the "Directorium in Publicis et cameralibus" (1748), the Ministry of the Interior, the Police and Censorship Offices and the former Ministry of National Defence are stored, are no longer able to publish their work. The great work on the Central Administration of Austria, of which three volumes have already appeared, has been suspended, although the fourth volume, dealing with the reign of Maria Theresa, is ready for printing. The documents of the former Chancellery of Bohemia have been ceded to the Czechoslovak Republic. It has been impossible to convert these archives into a central general records office for the administration of the interior.

The Ministry of Finance, which has possessed its own archives and an immense library since 1892, has, for reasons of economy, been forced to dismiss four librarians. There can accordingly be no question of enlarging the archives, of continuing the bibliography of works on finance or of publishing the library catalogue.

The State archives at Innsbruck, the oldest and formerly the richest in Austria, are now called the *Archives of the Province of Tyrol*. They were until 1363 the archives of the Princes of Tyrol descended from the house of Goerz; in the time of the Hapsburgs they became the archives of the reigning branch in the Tyrol. Under Maximilian I, they became virtually the Imperial Archives. The documents belonging to the Prince Bishops of Brixen and Trent have for the most part been ceded to Italy. Although these archives are recognised as the general record office for the province, they are most inadequately housed. The number of officials has been reduced by half, and the review "Forschungen und Mitteilungen zur Geschichte Tyrols und Vorarlbergs", published by the office, has not appeared since 1920. The premises are damp and there is risk of fire. Most important work has had to be suspended owing to lack of funds.

As regards *Styria*, the former Government archives were reorganised in 1906 as the records office for the entire province. The Law Courts and Army records have been deposited there since 1918. It has been impossible, owing to lack of funds, to publish the further volumes of the printed catalogue, "Inventare österr. Staatlicher Archive IV, 1918, and the "History of the Administrative Organisation of Central Austria", the first part of which appeared in 1916.

The province of *Salzburg* possesses Government archives at Salzburg, for the preservation of which it is at present impossible to construct a new building.

There are also in several provinces archives founded in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, where the minutes of the debates in the Diet are preserved. Before the war, competent archivists superintended the preservation of the records and made them accessible to the public, for instance, at Vienna (Lower Austria), Linz (Upper Austria), Graz (Styria), Klagenfurt (Carinthia), Innsbruck (Tyrol), Bregenz (Vorarlberg). The Graz archives incorporated in the "Joanneum" in 1868 are the most important.

The *Carinthian* archives founded in 1903 are an offshoot of the Historical Society, from which they inherited a large number of documents referring to the administration of the province. It has been impossible to make further additions — although this is very necessary — owing to lack of space and funds.

The *Vorarlberg* Archives and the library attached to them were founded in 1898. After the break-up of the Empire, many of the documents preserved in the Government archives at Innsbruck were deposited there. Research work is energetically pursued, thanks to the activities of the Museum Society and of the Vorarlberg Historical Commission. For this reason it would be desirable to enlarge the library.

C. SCIENTIFIC INSTITUTIONS.

I. *The Academy of Sciences.*—Among the scientific institutions which are State-controlled or attached to other State institutions, for administrative reasons, the most important is the Academy of Sciences. Founded in 1847 by the Emperor Ferdinand I, the Academy is divided into two sections : one for mathematics and natural history, the other for philosophy and history. Each of these sections has thirty national members and forty-six corresponding members abroad ; when vacancies occur they are filled, by the vote of the remaining members, at an election which takes place at the annual meeting. The members of the Academy include representatives of every nationality ; even during the war not a single name was struck off the roll of members.

The Academy owns a library containing periodicals published by about 600 institutions and associations with which it exchanges publications. It also comprises :

1. Phonogram Archives.
2. The Radium Research Institute.
3. The Biological Research Institute.

The two sections of the Academy publish minutes of the meetings at which the work of members or other scientists is discussed, together with reports containing accounts of more extensive work, besides a record (*Anzeiger*) of the work done and of the meetings. The natural history section has also published :

- (1) The "Proceedings" of the Seismological Commission ;
- (2) The "Proceedings" of the Radium Research Institute ;
- (3) The "Proceedings" of the Biological Research Institute.

Works dealing with the results of deep-sea exploration are published in a summary called "*Berichte der Kommission für ozeanographische Forschungen*". The first section of the Academy also publishes annually reports on chemical questions.

In addition to the "reports", "minutes" and "records" of meetings, the philosophy and history section publishes : (1) the records of the history of Austria ; (2) the "*Fontes rerum Austriacarum*" (in two parts : (a) *scriptores*, (b) *diplomataria et acta*) ; (3) the reports by the German legate ; (4) the historical atlas of the Alpine provinces, accompanied by explanations and notes ; (5) the origins of the agrarian history of the Alpine provinces ; (6) the documents referring to the register of seigniorial lands and revenues in Austria (in four parts : (a) the estates of the reigning princes, (b) ecclesiastical estates, (c) estates of the monasteries, (d) seigniorial fiefs) ; (7) the Austro-Bavarian dictionary ; (8) the "*Corpus scriptorum patrum latinorum*" ; (9) the collections of inscriptions in Asia Minor (*Tituli Asiæ minoris*) ; (10) a contribution to the "*Thesaurus linguæ latinæ*" ; (11) investigations into the "limes" in Austria ; (12) the catalogues of mediæval libraries in Austria.

The two sections also publish a Year-Book giving information regarding the achievements of the Academy and its members. Among the most important scientific enterprises undertaken since 1913 were : (a) the exploration of the frontier districts of China and Thibet (1913-14) by A. Gebauer ; (b) geographical and geological research in the frontier district of Tien-Chan in 1914 (these two enterprises were interrupted by the war) ; (c) botanical expedition in South-West China from 1914 to 1918 by H. Handel-Mazzetti ; (d) anthropological research work by R. Poech, in the camps for prisoners of war ; (e) botanical research (Doerfler), geological research (Kerner and Vettors) and zoological research (Penther) in Albania in 1916 and 1917 ; (f) geological research (Krebs and Abel, Ampferer and Hammer) and zoological research (Penther and Zerny) in Serbia and in the Sanjak of Novi-Bazar in 1916 and 1917 ; (g) geological research work along the Italo-Tyrolean frontier (Diener, Geyer, Doelter) in 1917-18.

The results of the expeditions undertaken in 1913 and 1922 by the philosophy and history section are set out in the following volumes : (1) "Archæological Explorations in Albania and Montenegro", by C. Praschniker and A. Schober, 1919 ; (2) "Albanian Fairy Tales, and other Documents", by Max Lambertz, 1922 ; (3) "Results of the Census in Albania and in the Territory occupied by the Austro-Hungarian Troops", by François Sainer, 1922.

The Academy once possessed a considerable fortune ; indeed, in 1914, it was one of the wealthiest institutions of its kind in Central Europe. But, with the exception of Czechoslovak scrip and industrial shares, all its former holdings have depreciated, and the subsidies granted by the State cannot be increased sufficiently to counterbalance this depreciation. Naturally, the publications of the Academy suffer as a consequence. Printing costs have risen and every month printers demand higher salaries, which have to be conceded in order to avoid strikes. In 1914, the printing of a sheet cost 60 crowns ; to-day the cost is a million paper crowns, or 17,000 times as great as in 1914. Private contributions appear to be almost exhausted and may cease altogether. It is impossible to procure foreign scientific literature. To its great regret the Academy has not yet been able to resume the exchange of publications with the Academy of Sciences in Paris.

Travelling has become extremely difficult, if not impossible, for members of the Academy.

The Academy is a member of the Association of German Academies (German "Kartell") and collaborates with the latter in publishing the following works :

1. "Encyclopædia of Mathematics".
2. Poggendorff's "Biographical Dictionary of the Exact Sciences".
3. "Thesaurus linguæ latinæ".
4. "Austro-Bavarian Dictionary".
5. "The German Biographical Year-Book".
6. "Catalogue of Mediæval Libraries".

Other work, *e.g.*, research work connected with atmospheric electricity, the "Mahabharata", the "Encyclopædia of Islam", etc., has had to be suspended. The Academy took a share in the foundation of the International Association of Academies, which was dissolved owing to the war.

The mathematics and natural history section proposes to publish the results of the following work which has been carried out since the war : (1) an altimetric geodesical survey conducted in the Alps by officials of the former Geographical Institute ; (2) geological-petrographical researches in the Central Alps ; (3) explorations in the Balkan peninsula and in China, the travels of Professor Werner and his companions in the Soudan ; (4) biological researches in freshwaters in Austria, commenced by Charles Kupelwieser, founder of the Institute on the Lake of Lunz in Lower Austria ; (5) utilisation of the anthropological and ethnographical material bequeathed by R. Poech ; (6) publication of the work of three institutes affiliated to the Academy, *viz.* : the Phonogram Archives, the Radium Research Institute and the Biological Research Institute.

The philosophy and history section is preparing, in spite of financial difficulties, to publish certain new works : (1) the "Schwabenspiegel", a thirteenth-century book on jurisprudence ; (2) the second volume of the Tigra Dictionary, edited by the Lazarist Fathers ; (3) the Arabic translation of Aristotle's Rhetorics and Poetics ; (4) the publication of Russian folk-songs, collected in the prisoners' camps in Austria.

II. *The Austrian Archæological Institute* was founded by the State in 1898, and the schools at Constantinople, Smyrna and Athens were under its direction ; but in 1918 certain collections of antiquities were ceded to the Succession States, and in 1919 the permanent office at Smyrna was abolished. At present there is only one permanent office — at Athens — in addition to the headquarters of the Institute in Vienna. The number of officials has been reduced from seven to four. The "Museum Carnuntinum" at Deutsch-Altenburg (Lower Austria) is under the direction of the Institute, which now includes 100 Austrian members and 200 foreign members of all nationalities.

The Institute owns two libraries, one in Vienna and the other in Athens, vast collections of photographs, casts of inscriptions, plans, and so on. It publishes an illustrated review entitled *Jahreshefte des österreichischen archäologischen Instituts*, and catalogues of the collection of Austrian antiquities.

Several excavations have been carried out in the Alpine provinces, also in Istria and Dalmatia (Virunum, Teurnia, Aquileia, Aguntum, Solva, Poetovio, Pola, Zara, Salone, Burnum and Aequum). The Institute has also undertaken the editing of the commentaries on the "limes" published by the Academy of Sciences, and in the publications of the Academy's Balkan Commission. It has taken part in archæological researches in Greece (Lusoi, Elis and Aigeira); in Asia Minor, mainly at Ephesus; and even in Albania, where some progress was made with archæological research during the war. The activities of the Institute have been curtailed owing to lack of funds; instead of 100,000 Swiss francs, it had at its disposal only 218 francs in 1922. Research work would be feasible outside Austria in the Adriatic countries and in Greece and Asia Minor, as the secretaries of the Institute are able archæologists. The publications might be resumed if means were forthcoming. The library needs to be completed by the addition of the more important foreign publications. The Institute does good work by keeping in touch with the Academy and the universities.

III. *The Federal Public Monuments Office.*—A central commission for historic monuments of artistic value was set up in 1854; in 1918 it was christened the "Staatsdenkmalamt" and in 1920 the Federal Monuments Office (Bundesdenkmalamt). The office employs a director and several specialists in the arts, technical sciences, prehistory, folklore, numismatology and the preservation of nature. An institute of the history of art, which publishes scientific works, is attached to the Office. In the various Austrian provinces there are other monument offices subordinate to the Vienna office.

In 1913 the latter office employed forty-six persons; to-day it has only seventeen. It superintends the preservation of monuments and the imports and exports of antiquities and works of art. In 1913, its income amounted to 700,000 Swiss francs; in 1922, it was only 485 francs. The lack of funds has proved a serious embarrassment to some of the chief publications of the office: "The Typography of Art", "The Year-Book of the History of Art" and "Proceedings".

It is proposed to prepare a catalogue of Austrian monuments of artistic value.

IV. *The Oriental and Far Eastern Research Institute* was founded in 1916 by the Oriental and Far Eastern Society, on the principle of co-operation between scholars and business men. Its activities extend to the Balkans, Russia and the Ukraine and also to Asia and North Africa. The proposal for its foundation emanated from the Lower Austrian Chamber of Commerce, with the co-operation of manufacturers and men of learning. The Institute has a large library, rich in works illustrating the history of Oriental civilisation and art. The Balkan-Slav library, which belonged to Professor Jirecek, was acquired in 1918. There is also a rich Byzantine collection.

Numerous works have been published by the Institute, and several others are in preparation, but cannot, however, be printed owing to lack of funds.

V. *The Styrian History Commission*, founded in 1892 by the Diet, is intended to promote research work into the history, administration and constitution of Styria.

The head of the provincial administration of Styria is the chairman of the Commission; his deputy is the rapporteur on questions of intellectual culture. The Commission is composed of historians and from among them are selected a permanent committee and a secretary, to deal with current affairs. There are also three members at Vienna and one at Klagenfurt. The Commission has been obliged to suspend its publications (which were formerly numerous and dealt with the sources of history and the constitution and administration of Styria), as the grants from the province and the Ministry of Public Education were inadequate.

It is proposed to publish the Acts of the Diet and the provincial charters. An expert assistant will have to be engaged.

VI. *The Geological Institute*, founded in 1849 under the title of the Imperial Institute, was the first State institute of the kind to be founded on the Continent. It employs a director, a certain number of geologists, several cartographers and administrative employees, besides subordinate staff. It possesses a chemical laboratory (with a chemist), a library and a museum comprising twenty-four rooms.

The Institute publishes the results of geological researches, certain treatises and scientific works and also a year-book. It proposes to publish the sheets of the general geological map with a commentary, a geological survey map, the results of the researches in the Suedeten district, etc.

In 1913, the Institute comprised a director, twenty-one geologists, four employees and six messengers, superintendents, etc. It now has only twelve officials and two messengers. The sum at its disposal for the purchase of necessary objects amounts to only 1,653,000 paper crowns.

The Institute has accordingly been forced to curtail its activities very considerably and to restrict the publication of its labours, thus rendering the exchange of works with other institutions almost impossible.

VII. *The Central Institute of Meteorology and Geodynamics*, founded in 1851, is the central meteorological station for all Austria. It undertakes magnetic measurements, geodetical work, meteorological and seismological observations (the latter since 1914), and researches into the upper strata of the air by means of manned balloons and balloons without a crew.

It has several affiliated institutions, viz., a seismological station at Graz, another at Innsbruck, 102 meteorological stations and more than 1,000 macroseismic and 160 thunder-storm stations in Lower Austria. The mountain observatories at Sonnblick (3,106 metres) and at the Obir (2,044 metres) are affiliated to it and are maintained by subscriptions from the Meteorological Society and the Sonnblick Association.

In 1913, the Institute employed thirty persons, but since the decline in the exchange their number has been reduced to nineteen; its budget amounts to 14,510,000 paper crowns — the equivalent of rather less than 1,000 gold crowns. The help provided by private donations, welcome though it is, is unfortunately inadequate. The regular publications of the Institute are the "Daily Meteorological Bulletin", the "Austrian Monthly Weather Record", the "Weekly Record of Earthquakes" and the "Austrian Climatological Bulletin".

VIII. *The Research Institute for Agricultural Chemistry at Vienna* was founded in 1869 by the Ministry of Agriculture. This Institute undertakes scientific research-work in connection with the breeding of animals, the production of plants and applied chemistry. It also tests agricultural products and those of the agricultural industries. It gives advice on agricultural questions and on improvements in the methods of cultivation. The Institute was divided into eight sections, which dealt with the following questions respectively: (1) Plant culture; (2) dairy-farming; (3) viniculture; (4) fens and peat-bogs; (5) chemico-technical researches; (6) chemico-technical research for official purposes; (7) fisheries and drainage; (8) forage and foodstuffs. The Institute employed fifty-eight persons, including twenty-four experts. The eight sections have been reduced to three: (1) Plant cultivation; (2) forage and foodstuffs, dairy-farming, viniculture; (3) agricultural industries. There are only forty employees, of whom seventeen are technical experts. As the State is unable to place adequate funds at the disposal of the Institute, the libraries and laboratories are becoming out-of-date and useless. This Institute should receive assistance without delay.

IX. *Plant Cultivation and Seed-Testing Institute*. — This Institute was founded as the Agricultural Societies' testing station for seeds and was granted an annual subsidy by the State. It was placed under State control in 1895. In 1903, it was installed in a specially constructed building in the Prater. It undertakes scientific research-work connected with the cultivation of plants and seeds, and by giving advice to farmers it assists the practical application of such researches to national agriculture. The Institute owns six laboratories, viz.: (1) a laboratory for the cultivation of plants and seeds; (2) a laboratory for testing seeds (purity and productive capacity); (3) a botanico-microscopic laboratory; (4) a chemical laboratory; (5) a photographic laboratory; (6) a research laboratory for milling and baking questions. There is a library attached to the Institute. In 1914, it comprised nine scientists, four other officials, seven employees in the administrative services, three assistants and two messengers, twenty-five persons in all. In 1923, it had five technical experts, one botanical inspector, one inspector of grasses, five chemists, three administrative employees and one messenger. In 1914, it received a grant of 18,000 crowns. In 1918, the grant only amounted to 474,776 paper crowns,

i.e., 316 gold crowns. The Institute has been obliged to curtail its work. Whilst in 1914 it undertook 32,153 analyses, only 6,786 were carried out in 1920. Its publications, which were formerly very numerous, have also been reduced in number.

X. *Institute for the Preservation of Plants*.—This Institute, which is a State establishment founded in 1903, undertakes the investigation of diseases in plants and plant-parasites, advises farmers on all botanical and bacteriological questions (such as typhus in rats and mice), and furnishes them with information concerning protective methods.

The Institute possesses a library and botanical, zoological, chemical and bacteriological laboratories. It publishes a bulletin on the preservation of plants, which it will shortly, no doubt, be obliged to discontinue publishing, owing to the heavy cost. Only 7 million paper crowns were granted in 1923 for the library and 517 millions for research, i.e., 500 and 4,000 gold crowns respectively. As a consequence, both tours of enquiry and publications have had to be curtailed. No margin is left for the carrying out of tests, nor are reviews and special publications received in sufficient numbers. The collections of insects and photographs and the herbaria can be neither preserved nor enlarged.

XI. *The Mariabrunn Federal Forestry Institute (Lower Austria)*.—This Institute was founded in 1874 for the purpose of improving the science of forestry. It is subdivided into the following sections: (1) Afforestation and the relative suitability of soils; (2) forest botany and phytopathology; (3) forest fauna; (4) chemistry.

The Institute employs one forester, one gardener, one clerk, one laboratory assistant, a concierge and an assistant gardener. The inadequate equipment of the laboratories has an adverse effect on the Institute's work. The number of officials has fallen from nine to four and that of the assistants from five to one, that of the messengers and superintendents from five to two. The library is unable to purchase any new works or to have reviews bound.

The funds which the Institute has at its disposal are inadequate and it is unable to undertake tests either in nursery-gardens or in the forests of Austria.

XII. *The Linz Research Institute for Agricultural Chemistry* was founded by combining the Upper Austrian Agricultural Research Institute at Schärding with the Linz Institute for Alimentary Research and the Chemical Laboratory. At the beginning of the war, the Institute had just been accommodated in a new building and it had not commenced its work.

The object of the Institute is to undertake the analytical testing of foodstuffs, and to conduct research-work in connection with aliments. It possesses, for this purpose, two chemical laboratories, an office for analysing milk and a small library.

The scientific work of the Institute is impeded by lack of funds, its resources amounting to only 8 million paper crowns (500 gold crowns); it is unable to buy either test-tubes or retorts. It has been forced to suspend the publication of its scientific tests, but it continues to issue its "Practical Advice to Farmers". No research-work of any kind is possible, because the Institute does not possess sufficient land for the purpose and cannot obtain the technical reviews which it would need to consult.

XIII. *The Austrian Ornithological Institute at Salzburg* was founded in 1913. It is the property of the founder, Ed. Paul Tratz, and undertakes research-work connected with the habits and protection of birds. It includes a research laboratory and a museum which is open to the public. The library contains the records of observations carried out over a period of forty years. The collection consists of about 10,000 specimens, the majority of which are stuffed birds. There are also specimens of eggs, nests and bones, together with anatomical and biological specimens. The laboratory is equipped to undertake ornithological research-work. The system of marking birds by rings was introduced in 1913.

Most of the work is done by the director himself and by voluntary assistants. Since 1919, the Institute has published a review known as *Der Waldrapp*, the leading journal of Austrian ornithologists. The subsidies granted by the State, the province and the munici-

pality being inadequate, research-work has been suspended since 1921 and the review since 1922. For the same reason, the Institute has remained free from State control, which it had been proposed by the Academy of the Sciences to introduce ; indeed, the admission receipts of the museum cover only four months' expenditure.

D. SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES AND ASSOCIATIONS.

(a) *General Conditions.*

A great number of scientific associations and societies were in existence under the old Monarchy, not merely in Vienna, where most of them naturally had their headquarters, but also in the various provincial capitals. For the purpose of our survey, we may divide them into three groups : (1) special associations formed for purely scientific purposes ; (2) professional associations superintending professional interests ; (3) general associations of intellectual workers (including those superintending economic interests). Before the war the first two groups had a very long membership-roll and their expenditure was almost entirely covered by annual subscriptions. Few societies owned their own premises ; the majority had their headquarters in public buildings, where they met at regular intervals and where lectures were given. These societies generally published reviews of their own, dealing with the particular branch of science with which they were concerned. These reviews made it possible for them to exchange publications with similar societies abroad, and thus, in course of time, quite extensive libraries were built up.

The most important associations also received regular grants from the State (Ministry of Public Education), or from the provinces or municipalities in which they had their headquarters.

All scientific associations have suffered greatly from the war, the dismemberment of the country, and the depreciation of the currency.

Membership has dwindled, for most of the members were drawn from the intellectual workers and the middle classes. Several societies have ceased to exist ; the Scientific Medical Association of Carinthia, for instance, became extinct in 1919. This association was in the main absorbed by the Carinthian Medical Association.

The population of Austria has suffered a general decrease since the dismemberment of the Empire in 1918. This decrease was also due in part to the losses suffered in the war.

Owing to the precarious position of the middle classes and the intellectual workers, it was impossible to increase subscriptions to an extent which would counterbalance the appalling depreciation in the currency, and such increases as have been made are unimportant. Neither were the State, provincial or municipal grants-in-aid sufficient to counteract the effects of depreciation — the sums granted were always inadequate. In several instances, associations have been forced to evacuate their premises because, owing to the housing crisis, it became necessary to employ meeting-halls, etc., for other purposes. This was the case, for instance, with the Graz Natural Science Society. In other cases, the premises leased by the societies were requisitioned for conversion into public kitchens or for similar purposes. This was the fate with the Graz Lawyers' Association. Moreover, rents rose far more rapidly than the societies' receipts, and the costs of lighting, heating, cleaning and service have reached a fabulous figure.

The societies were accordingly forced to curtail their meetings and lectures. This paralysed their work and made it impossible for them to obtain new members abroad. The harm caused by such restriction of activity was especially serious, as it occurred at a time when the humble resources of the middle classes and the intellectual workers forced them to limit their expenditure to the bare necessities of life.

The increase in postage charges for letters, printed matter and invitations, which absorbed practically the whole income of the societies, affected the scientific associations in a very adverse manner. The expedient which they adopted of sending out only one programme for the whole series of lectures and meetings organised by the society, instead of issuing special invitations for each lecture, had an unfortunate effect on attendances at the meetings, for it is well known that frequent invitations have to be sent to ensure a good attendance.

It is extremely difficult, at the present time, to organise lectures in other towns for the purpose of attracting new members. Consequently, the interest taken by the general public in such societies is gradually diminishing.

The acquisition of new books, and of foreign books in particular, has become almost an impossibility for most societies. As a result, their libraries show very serious lacunæ, and are becoming less and less useful to men of learning, or at any rate are fast losing their modernity. Scientific publications, especially reviews, have gradually ceased to appear, as the printing costs are utterly beyond their reach. Consequently, exchanges of publications with foreign societies, which had already been considerably diminished during the war, have been completely paralysed. Numerous scientific societies are no more than a shadow of their former selves.

(b) *Special Difficulties of certain Associations.*

1. *Special Scientific Associations.*

The difficulties which we have just mentioned are common to all societies and associations, and seriously hinder their activities ; some of them are obliged in addition to contend with difficulties of a peculiar nature, inherent in their objects and their work.

A large number of scientific associations (geographical, geological and other societies) formerly organised tours and expeditions in Austria and even abroad. At the present time, much of the former Empire has become "abroad" for us, and the exchange in these countries is prohibitive. Even expeditions in Austria have become difficult in view of the increased price of railway tickets, so that it is hardly possible to undertake excursions except in the vicinity of one's own town.

Other societies, which used to conduct excavations (prehistoric and anthropological societies, for instance), are now unable to carry out any work of this kind, because the expenses entailed by excavations have become too high as a result of the increased price of labour.

The Austrian Meteorological Society is only able to maintain its Alpine observatories by means of gifts from foreign meteorologists.

Associations such as the Numismatic Society and all the art societies — which formerly organised exhibitions — are seriously hampered by the difficulties mentioned above. Rent, heating, lighting, advertising and superintendence cost far more than the price of admission, and it is almost impossible to increase the price, for in that case the number of visitors would probably diminish. Catalogues can no longer be printed ; foreign artists cannot send their work to our exhibitions, and vice versa, as the cost of conveyance is too high.

The Numismatic Society, which was amalgamated in 1919 with the Austrian Society for Roman and Greek Coins and Medals, was formerly in the habit of giving prizes to medallists and used to organise a meeting at least once annually in some provincial town ; but now it is no longer in a position to do so.

. *Professional Associations.*

(a) *Artists.*

The art societies (the Society of Viennese Artists, the "Sezession", the "Hagenbund", etc.) are particularly dependent on the success of their exhibitions ; and exhibitions are nowadays much more difficult to organise than formerly, for the reasons given above.

Apart from these difficulties, of a general nature, certain societies, more especially the smaller ones, are confronted with difficulties more peculiarly their own.

The Salzburg Art Association is hampered by a shortage of studios, and desires to remedy this state of affairs by adding a story to the Künstlerhaus (Artists' Home), but it has not the necessary sum (100,000,000 crowns) at its disposal.

The Albrecht Dürer Union at Vienna has no gallery of its own and it can only organise exhibitions at irregular intervals when the municipality or some artists' association allows it to hire a gallery — at extremely high rates. In 1913, the municipality placed a plot of ground at the disposal of the Union, but the war precluded all building operations.

The Austrian Arts and Crafts Union in Vienna, the object of which is to improve handicrafts and to encourage artistic, industrial and commercial activity by instruction and propaganda, is unable to publish important works or even to organise regular lectures owing to its financial difficulties. It is unable to publish a regular review and has no means to provide scholarships for young artists, to equip studios, to organise study-tours or visits to museums under expert guidance, etc.

Even that great Viennese society "The Friends of Music", which was founded in 1812 and is one of the oldest societies of its kind, has to battle with numerous difficulties. It founded the Vienna Conservatoire of Music in 1817 and subsidised it until 1918, when the Conservatoire became a State institution. This society promotes the cultivation of the higher forms of music, and was until recently the only society in Vienna which organised choral concerts and oratorios. The former became famous under the conductorship of Herbeck, Johannes Brahms, Hans Richter and Franz Schalk; they are, at the present moment, conducted by Wilhelm Furtwängler. The society has also contributed in an indirect way to spreading a knowledge of serious musical works and has organised musical recitals for the big public, popular concerts and lectures.

Two societies have been affiliated to it for more than sixty years, namely, the Choral Union of the Society of the Friends of Music and the Orchestral Association, both composed of amateurs who, without remuneration and merely for music's sake, devote their talents to the work of the society. The Choral Union in particular supplies choirs for the big concerts given by the Society of the Friends of Music called the "Society's Concerts" (Gesellschaftskonzerte).

The society, which has never been organised on a commercial basis, has encouraged numerous artists by gifts of money, scholarships, etc., and organised charitable performances, either by its own efforts or by placing at the disposal of other artists the necessary halls at reduced prices or gratis.

It has, since its foundation, organised a records library and a museum, which may be visited free of charge; many foreign musicians work there. On the occasion of the Society's centenary it published a "History of the Society of the Friends of Music 1812-1912", Vienna, 1912. It has also organised exhibitions, including, in 1920, a Beethoven Exhibition, and, in 1922, exhibitions of the works and relics of Brahms and Schubert. Prizes used previously to be awarded for serious musical compositions (the last occasion was in 1912).

Prevailing economic conditions have greatly hampered the society's work. It only subsists by means of private donations, and is obliged to renounce printing its annual reports and awarding prizes; even exhibitions have become almost impossible.

(b) *Doctors.*

The Viennese Medical Association, founded in 1838, established in the course of its existence certain endowments intended to afford relief to its members or their widows; these endowments have now become valueless, and the same may be said of the science prize awarded every two years (the Goldberger prize). The immense library is badly housed and requires enlargement; one of the reading-rooms needs to be converted into a room for the storage of books, but this would involve considerable expenditure.

The Innsbrück Scientific Medical Association is also unable to buy scientific works and special reviews, particularly foreign reviews.

The Austrian Society for Cancer Research, founded in 1910, was engaged upon building a special hospital and research institute of which the plans had all been designed when the

war broke out. The membership has fallen from 682 (1913) to 497 (1922). Any serious attempt at research-work has become impossible owing to lack of funds.

(c) *Lawyers.*

The same difficulties confront the Associations of Lawyers at Vienna and in the provinces (there is an association of this kind at Steyr, also in Upper Austria); they are unable to organise lectures or keep up their libraries for the reasons given above.

(d) *Actors.*

The object of the Austrian Actors' Association, founded in 1893, is to assist artistes and to watch over their economic interests. Apart from the general prevailing difficulties, it is also hampered by the fact that its members are often unable to obtain the necessary increase in their salary to meet the rise in prices. Many of its members are unable to earn their livelihood, and are exposed to all kinds of privation.

3. *General Associations (including Associations superintending Economic Interests).*

The abnormal conditions of poverty into which intellectual workers were plunged immediately after the fall of the former Monarchy in 1919 led to the foundation of several immense organisations. One of the most important of these is the *Central Council of Austrian Intellectual Workers*. The Council is a Union of professional associations of intellectual workers, its object being to combine the representation of their interests under a single society, and its membership already including 219 organisations of this kind, with a total of 400,000 members.

The work which the Union proposes to achieve is the improvement of the economic and social position of intellectual workers. In the period when the famine was at its height and poverty was most acute, immediately after the catastrophe — when there was an appalling lack of food — the Union endeavoured to assist its members to obtain food supplies; it furnished them with clothes and undertook to provide them with other indispensable articles for their daily life. The relief work, which was conducted on very broad lines, under the energetic leadership of the Chairman, Dr. H. Sperl, Professor at the University, has continued to develop. The Union undertook to distribute the "charitable gifts" sent from abroad (Great Britain, America, the Netherlands), and also organised a "Mutual Relief" Organisation, comprising a bureau for the distribution of food and fuel, a section for general insurance and insurance against sickness, a boot-repairing workshop and an employment and house agency. Moreover, many children were sent abroad (to Denmark, Great Britain and the Netherlands), and room was found for others in convalescent homes, hospices, etc. There is a special medical department where patients are examined, which provides them with suitable treatment, supplies sick children with medicine, condensed milk and cod-liver oil, and which, in maternity cases, furnishes money and extra food.

Since economic conditions in Austria began to improve, the Union has steadily devoted more of its time to superintending the intellectual interests of its members. For this purpose, it has founded an art and educational association, which has made artistic pleasures such as theatrical performances, concerts and art exhibitions accessible to the intellectual middle classes, who had for long been deprived of them. Books are supplied at very reasonable prices by the "Amba" organisation, which is affiliated to the Central Council of Intellectual Workers, and the former also provides paper, pens and other requisites for intellectual work.

Recently, a fund has also been endowed for the purpose of assisting indigent poets, artists, men of learning and musicians; and to this fund the Central Council contributed ten million crowns. The gifts received from persons interested in Austrian science and art and the receipts from concerts and lectures are used to increase and supplement the fund.

Lastly, it is proposed to endow a fund, which would be available for loans at a very moderate rate of interest, or even free of interest, for financing relief work. These loans could be repaid gradually. The relief referred to takes the form of providing special libraries for scholars,

assistance for young doctors who are about to set themselves up in practice, loans for the printing of works of undoubted value from a scientific or literary point of view, and for the completion of works of art.

The Central Council is permanently in touch with the League of Nations and with the International Labour Office, and also with similar unions in Germany, Switzerland, Italy, Belgium and France. It represents all Austrian intellectual workers, and, as such, is the mouthpiece of their interests in their relations with the State and public authorities. It attempts more especially to secure for them, in the social and economic field, that influence on the life of the nation which is theirs by right.

Another post-war foundation is the *International Relief Organisation for Intellectual Workers*. A fund was collected and organised in 1921, which is intended, under State control, to help intellectual workers and members of the middle classes, who are in distress, by supplying them with clothes and other indispensable articles, and advancing them money in case of sickness, equipping rest-homes for intellectual workers, founding popular kitchens where such workers can obtain meals at very reasonable prices, and also by procuring for them a few intellectual amusements such as lectures, theatrical performances, etc.

These objects have all been attained, but the rest-homes (at Altaussee, Zell-am-Ziller, Fulpmes and Raach) have, unhappily, had to be abandoned, owing to the excessive rental.

The *Middle Classes Club* has been of great assistance to intellectual workers. It endeavours to protect the interests of this class of society when threatened. It opened in 1920 a Correspondence Bureau, where letters could be drafted in all languages. At the beginning of 1921, a "Home Work Organisation" was founded in order to provide women of the intellectual classes with industrial work of an artistic nature. An Appointments Bureau was added in 1922, which obtains situations for members of the middle classes as clerks, professors, school teachers, household-helps, and so on. At the same time language and training courses were established for persons being trained as governesses and children's nurses, and in addition there were courses in needlework, sewing, etc. Musical evenings were also organised in private houses for the purpose of reviving the old Viennese music.

There is also a scheme for founding "Homes", obtaining housing accommodation, organising sickness relief funds, etc. Further, it is proposed to set up "Landeserziehungsheime" or "National training homes".

Among the various humanitarian institutions attached to the universities and academies for assisting students, special mention should be made of the *Vienna University Association Home*. The Association maintains a Hostel for Students, where more than a hundred students of the Vienna University receive board and lodging in return for an extremely small contribution to current expenses. The building is in urgent need of repair, but the cost would amount to several millions of crowns. The Association is only just able to exist on the contributions from its members and on a few donations. No funds are available for repairs or acquiring new material, etc. Owing to the general housing shortage, the question of finding a shelter for indigent students is of great importance.

The *Austrian Jewish Students' General Union* defends Jewish interests in the widest sense of the word. Its object is to unite all Jewish students in Austria on an entirely non-political basis, to encourage and to defend their special interests and the national interests of Jews in general. The means employed for this purpose are :

1. The establishment of a philanthropic bureau which obtains information as to material needs by means of statistics, and maintains a Students' Home and "Mensa" ; the distribution at reduced prices of all kinds of necessary objects ; contributions towards entrance, matriculation and doctorate fees ; the organisation of a students' dispensary and sickness fund ; and finally, the constitution of a bureau for providing destitute members with legal advice and assistance. The same bureau finds lodgings and work, and from time to time undertakes philanthropic work on behalf of Jewish students.

2. The establishment of a bureau intended to serve as an intellectual centre ; it organises lectures, courses, etc., on all kinds of subjects connected with Jewish life and intellectual life

in general ; the publication and circulation of reviews and books on Judaism and on subjects interesting Jewish students ; the foundation of lecture-rooms and libraries ; the encouragement of scientific and literary work by Jews by means of prizes and financial assistance ; the promotion of gymnastics and other sports, the encouragement of social relations and a spirit of good comradeship amongst the members by organising serious meetings and entertainments, and the maintenance of relations between Jewish students and Jewish pupils in secondary schools (Gymnasias, etc.).

The supreme executive organ of the Union is the "University Committee", which represents it in its relations with other associations and conducts its business.

The Union is in touch with almost all foreign organisations of Jewish students, and receives considerable grants from the "Inter-Collegiate Menorah Association", the "Joint Distribution Committee", the "Fund for the Jewish Victims of the War in Europe" and from the "Alliance Israélite universelle". The Union is a member of the Universal Union of Jewish Students, and took part at the Congress of the "World Help Conference" and the "European Students' Relief" (held at Turnau in April 1922).

E. LIBERAL PROFESSIONS.

Artists (Painters and Sculptors), Musicians, Actors, Men of Letters and Journalists.

Besides the intellectual workers in the service of the State and of the provincial and communal administrations, there are a certain number of free-lance artists and men of letters — not to mention isolated scholars — whose numbers were not large even before the war. Now that middle-class fortunes are more or less a thing of the past, there are practically no private scholars left in Austria.

Intellectual workers of this class are affected by the same circumstances as intellectual workers with fixed salaries, of whom we have been speaking ; but the former have suffered even more from the war and the ensuing chaos. They lack even the meagre support which the others derive from their fixed salaries ; they have to earn their living entirely by art or pen, and must even try to put something by, as they have no prospect of pensions. They are also worse off in case of illness, as not only is their work interrupted, but they have to meet additional expenses, such as doctors' and chemists' bills. Every day's work lost is a serious matter for them, as it lowers their output, and yet it is of vital importance for them to maintain this output and every moment's work is of value in view of their numerous wants.

The general housing shortage and the difficulties of heating, lighting, etc., caused by the complete stoppage in building activity and the enormous increase in coal, wood and oil prices, are yet more serious for workers of this class as they have no public institutions to assist them and no work-rooms are maintained for them by the Government at the University or elsewhere.

Young artists who had studios at the Academy during their years of study find themselves without a room to work in once their studies are over. In Vienna, a certain number of young artists are housed in a building used as a hospital during the war, the rooms in which still bear the marks of blood-stains ; it has not only been condemned as unfit for habitation, but is held by competent authorities to be a menace to the public health. A number of young artists have formed a club for the purpose of founding an art colony, to be known as "Rosenhügel", consisting of dwelling-houses and studios ; they propose to do half the manual work themselves in spite of the loss which this may involve to their artistic output, so anxious are they to obtain quarters. The funds which have hitherto been generously placed at their

disposal by the Friends' Relief Mission are unfortunately exhausted, and the artists have more need than ever of outside help. The sum required to carry this scheme into effect is estimated at one milliard crowns, the equivalent of only 67,000 pre-war crowns.

Artists are dependent in a greater degree than other intellectual workers on their patrons, whose tastes they have to consider if they wish to find purchasers for their work. We have already spoken of Austria's precarious economic position and emphasised the fact that economy is the rule in all that does not concern the satisfaction of immediate material wants. The number of connoisseurs has been greatly reduced by the exodus of the nobility and by the break-up of the Imperial household and of the Court ; the well-to-do middle classes have been "proletarianised", and the "new rich" either have no taste for art, music or literature or care only for worthless productions, trash, and cinema melodramas. The workmen are well paid, but the great majority of them would not dream of spending a penny on art, and should they at any time be smitten with a desire for culture, they can easily satisfy it by going to popular performances and lectures, to which they are admitted free or at very low prices.

In the opinion of eminent artists and writers, literary and artistic taste is everywhere on the wane, and this is due not only to the terrible events of the Great War, but also to the frenzied and unprincipled struggle for material profit and personal gain, the undermining and destruction of all authority and the disappearance of idealism. The hectic society of to-day, living in an atmosphere of continual nervous excitement, bowing down before no god but the golden calf, and riding rough-shod over all who stand in its way, has neither the depth of feeling nor the mental development to appreciate and enjoy true art. Its one aim in life is the enjoyment of the moment. The inner life, the conception of moral values, are for it a sealed book. As intellectual work is so ill remunerated, it is the less appreciated. This predominance of materialism in the mentality of the country has led to an impoverishment of intellectual life such as has not been witnessed in a German-speaking country since the Thirty Years' War.

Among the members of the liberal professions, *architects* and master-builders are worse off than any others. Since the war and the ensuing economic collapse, building activity has ceased, in spite of the fact that there is a serious shortage of houses. There are not sufficient funds available for such objects, and the more important banking firms are alone in a position to build. The shortage of money restricts facilities for credit, the more so as it is impossible to estimate building costs in view of the fluctuating rate of the exchange. Building activity is therefore limited to State and communal buildings executed by the public authorities, and private architects are altogether excluded.

The cessation of all contact with foreign countries will have one particularly unfortunate effect. Countries like Russia, the Ukraine, the Balkans, etc., where our best architects were always highly appreciated, are practically closed to Austria, although it is reasonable to suppose not only that these countries are in want of architects, but also that there are plenty of people in them who are anxious to build.

Austrian architects are perhaps unusually well qualified to build on the most economic principles, as they have had to cut down all unnecessary expenditure in construction. Necessity has always been the mother of invention ; and the necessity of giving up ornamentation and display has always had the effect of developing a higher degree of skill and leading to the discovery of new artistic processes.

It is a matter for regret that Austria has not a single review in which architects can exchange ideas on their art. Austrian reviews on this subject were formerly renowned. The *Foersterische Bauzeitung* had a European circulation, and the "Architekt" had subscribers in all parts of the world. Periodicals dealing with interior decoration, such as the *Intérieur* and the *Ver Sacrum*, had a considerable influence on the artistic development of Europe. This loss is the more regrettable as the Austrian architects used to be supported by an important cabinetmaking and furniture industry, which, during the last twenty years, was materially influenced by our artists. The increased exportation of furniture, glass, and *objets d'art* was largely due to the architects of Vienna, and the cessation of their activities has naturally had a detrimental effect on these industries.

In order to meet the problem of currency depreciation, artists are usually obliged to turn out superficial work, and do not venture, for fear of not finding purchasers, to undertake work on a large scale, which would require much time.

Sculptors are obliged, in the absence of larger orders, to confine themselves to small plastic works ; work in bronze or precious metals is practically out of the question. The wages of stone and metal workers are so high that Viennese sculpture, so long famous, is, like architecture, in process of decline.

Painters, it is true, have been able to sell their works, both during the war and since, but the purchasing public, being devoid of good taste and artistic feeling, did not appreciate the best work, while mediocre paintings found ready purchasers if their authors understood the art of advertising and of maintaining useful business connections.

The arts and crafts, which formerly flourished in Vienna, are now in an alarming state of stagnation ; not only do they suffer from a shortage of orders — as no new houses are being built — but sales abroad have completely ceased. The cause may be sought in the dismemberment of Austria, which has shrunk from a large nation of considerable purchasing power to a small country constrained to the narrowest economy.

Medal engravers no longer receive the orders which used formerly to flow in from private societies and offices whenever there was any special event to commemorate ; nowadays nothing of the kind occurs, since the numerous jubilees of the various offices and of the foundation of institutions have to be celebrated more modestly and without artistic commemoration. Orders from the Government and the Ministry of Public Education have entirely ceased, as the sums formerly available for this purpose have dwindled almost to nothing.

Our unfortunate little country has even been obliged to close the special Fine Arts Department which was formerly attached to the Ministry of Public Education.

The printing and illustration of books suffer from the shortage of the necessary materials, such as parchment, fine-quality paper, colours, etc. The production of picturesque posters is a lost art ; there are few big exhibitions to encourage it, and in those which are still held simpler methods of advertisement have to be employed to attract the public attention.

It is a matter for regret that so many reviews and periodicals have discontinued publication, as many men of talent are thereby deprived of the opportunity of publishing their works and thereby influencing public taste.

As even the Academies of Fine Arts are no longer able to award prizes or scholarships to promising artists, it is obviously almost impossible for private artists to travel abroad, as, without assistance, they cannot meet the cost of visits to countries with a higher rate of exchange.

Artists are more than ever obliged to confine their attention to the earning of their daily bread, which has grown very dear nowadays, as the race of true patrons of art seems to have died out.

The reproductive arts played an important part in Austria before the war ; etchings were specially prized (*e.g.*, those of W. Unger and other artists). The art-loving public had a strong predilection for coloured etchings. The immense increase in the prices of printing, accessories, materials, etc., naturally brought about a rise in the price of etchings, so that purchasing power and the inclination to buy have diminished — have, in fact, almost disappeared. The Society of Reproductive Arts has not at present the necessary funds to allow it to give orders to artists of the first rank. The “new rich” have not yet acquired sufficient artistic discrimination to pay any attention to this important branch of artistic activity, which might have a great influence in forming the public taste. A revival of the *Review of Reproductive Art* (*Zeitschrift für vervielfältigende Kunst*) would be most desirable. This review was instrumental in bringing about great improvements in the reproductive arts. The number of subscribers has diminished since it was found necessary to increase the subscription, and this has, of course, aggravated its financial difficulties.

As we have already observed, one of the chief obstacles in the way of creative art is the difficulty of procuring materials. Not only have they become very expensive and indeed almost unobtainable in many instances (*e.g.*, canvas), but, at any rate in Austria, they are no longer produced in the same good quality, and have therefore to be imported from abroad (*e.g.*, colours, chalks and small tools for modelling and sculpture). It is no longer possible to employ marble of the first quality (Italian marble); what is required has to be bought in Austria, where the price has become exorbitant owing to the high cost of transport.

Many works of art have, perforce, to remain in a rough state and cannot be finished, though the plans and sketches are complete, because the additional materials required cannot be obtained.

Naturally, it is even more difficult for artists working independently than for those who belong to associations to send their works to foreign exhibitions, and they cannot therefore hope to sell them. The orders given during the war by the Army Administration, *e.g.*, for the portraits of distinguished generals, etc., ceased immediately after the war, when the army was disbanded.

The chief sources of orders for private artists were the Imperial Court, the nobility, the army and the well-to-do middle classes; but these classes have either ceased to exist or have left Austria, or, at all events, are no longer living in Vienna, the artistic centre of the country.

The position of *music* is hardly more favourable, though at first sight it would appear that the situation of intellectual workers in this sphere was not so precarious, as concert-halls and operas are filled to overflowing. But here also, by comparison with pre-war days, great changes have taken place for the worse. During the war, the number of performances was at first reduced and the price of admission was lowered, but soon the situation was reversed. To-day, prices of admission have soared to such heights that only very wealthy people can afford the luxury. The people who really appreciate art can rarely attend good musical performances, except when special concerts are organised for intellectual workers with the generous assistance of the great musicians, or when they are given tickets by personal friends. The more famous performers have to be remunerated in a manner befitting their reputation and even then they only sign contracts for part of the season in Austria, so as to be able to spend the remainder of the year touring abroad, where they receive higher pay in more stable currencies.

This so-called "star" system has many drawbacks. Not only does the repertoire suffer during the absence of the "star" performers, which often coincides with the winter — the principal season in Austria — but the system reacts unfavourably on the average standard of acting, on which the success of the great dramatic performances depends.

Moreover, the position of the majority of performers, who do not rank among the favourites of the public, is far less advantageous. They are badly paid in comparison with their more celebrated brethren, and have no opportunity of increasing their incomes by touring abroad and thus making up for their own country's deficiencies. This applies not only to the members of the Opera company, but also to concert singers and members of orchestras. The "Philharmonic" Players can indeed go abroad and get full houses, but this good fortune does not fall to the lot of less famous performers and still less of beginners. It is the rising generation of performers that especially suffers in this respect. Once the hard years of study are finished at the cost of many sacrifices, the real struggle begins, and it is very difficult to make a name. It is far harder than it used to be to organise concerts for young unknown musicians. The rent of halls, the cost of light and heating, and fees of accompanists, etc., involve prohibitive expense, to which must be added the high entertainment tax imposed by the Vienna municipality. It is more than ever necessary for young artists to distribute free tickets if they do not want to play to empty stalls, but nowadays these free tickets represent a heavy outlay to the giver, and only those in an assured position can afford to distribute them.

Young musicians can, of course, give private lessons, which are now well paid — better, in fact, than any other kind of lessons given by intellectual workers. But even a well-paid teacher has to remember that he will only be able to give lessons during two-thirds of the year, as most pupils interrupt their studies in the summer (June-September). This gives rise to considerable uncertainty, quite apart from the fact that illness or other mishaps may cut down his earnings during the winter.

The fact that foreigners with a stable currency and war profiteers are the only people who can afford seats at operas and concerts has had other consequences. The cult of foreign music in Vienna has assumed proportions which border on the grotesque. Nowhere, during the war and in the post-war period, were foreign musical works, even by composers belonging to enemy countries, played so frequently as in Vienna. French, Polish and Italian composers monopolise the repertoire to the exclusion of Austrians. While abroad, especially in France, native authors and composers are given the greatest encouragement, the rising generation in this country has to overcome an apathy which is largely due to the methods of the Austrian Press. The big daily newspapers, from which the so-called cultured classes derive their opinions and their judgments, have critics on their staff who affect the international spirit and only encourage Austrian talent when it corresponds with their conception of art. Like Richard Wagner, our German-speaking composers have to contend with great difficulties raised by the Press, and can only attain success and assert their talent after they have been acclaimed in Germany and had their works performed there. Julius Bittner is a striking example of this, and Franz Schreker was also well known in Germany and had his works performed there before Vienna accorded him the same honour. He finally went to Berlin.

Our composers and playwrights suffer from the consequences of the war, inasmuch as they are unable to enforce all their rights of authorship. Many composers and dramatists whose works have been played abroad have not yet received the royalties to which they are entitled. The Berne Convention was a step towards the international protection of authors' rights, but active collaboration between the intellectuals of different countries is urgently needed. Only a passing reference can be made here to the fact that the performance of works in German was impossible during the war in the enemy countries, and that this naturally involved our authors in considerable losses. There is a general demand for the prolongation, from thirty to fifty years, of the period during which an author's works enjoy legal protection. This proposal originated from the fact that Richard Wagner's family has been reduced to indigence. The example of France, where the extension has been already decided upon, ought to be followed. In the sphere of music, the same difficulties are encountered as in the other sciences. Special reviews, *e.g.*, *Der Merker*, which used to be subsidised by the Government, are disappearing under the pressure of financial difficulties. To subscribe to foreign musical periodicals has become impossible owing to their prices.

As the printing expenses of books in general have so greatly increased, it naturally follows that the cost of printing works dealing with the science of music is even greater, as the printing of the passages of music necessary to illustrate the text is a costly item.

The *Drama* has been labouring under the same difficulties as music since the war. Here, too, the comparatively favourable situation of a small number of star performers is no criterion of the circumstances of the profession as a whole. The artists of the State Theatre (Burgtheater) are only a small minority. Out of about 2,000 dramatic performers at present living in Austria, 90 % do not draw salaries sufficient to support a family, as the professional expenses are exorbitant. The purchase and upkeep of a modern stage outfit and the very high price of rouge, which is subject to a luxury tax and comes largely from abroad, involve so much expenditure that actors have to look for outside employment. Most of them act in private theatres which are under the control of the managers and, being private undertakings, are naturally worked for a profit. They are not subsidised by the State, which is under no obligation to meet or guarantee their deficits; unlike the State theatres, they are in fact commercial enterprises; their repertoire must consequently be adapted to the tastes and passing fancies of the public, and the actors are not always paid or treated as they should be. The numerous quarrels between managers and proprietors of theatres, and the endless disputes which arise between actors and

their managers whenever the former ask for a rise in salary, are an unpleasant feature of the situation. The pensions and relief granted to families and widows are particularly inadequate in this profession.

As many actors do not sign contracts for life, but only for limited periods, it often happens that they find themselves without an engagement, and the renewal of contracts, or the formalities necessary when they wish to transfer their services to another company or theatre, provide the managers with opportunities for exploiting them. It is true that managers do not always lead an easy life, and cannot be continually raising the price of seats to cover the increasing expenses of their concerns without risking the loss of many patrons. The entertainment tax and the other adverse circumstances already mentioned, which have led to an enormous increase in costs, have obliged a number of theatrical companies to close down, or at any rate to restrict their activities to such an extent that they have had to dismiss some of the members of their companies. In the Succession States of Austria, the number of theatrical companies in which German-speaking actors can find employment has greatly decreased.

Moreover, we must not overlook the fact that, though the demand — and therefore the opportunities — of obtaining employment have fallen off, the supply has increased, the number of actors being now greater than before the war. Many ex-officers and soldiers have gone on the stage, for which they had always felt an inclination, or have joined the companies of small night theatres of the "cabaret" type. It is a well-known fact that in Austria dramatic talent is common among the people. The growth of democracy in the new Republic, in conjunction with the financial difficulties which have assailed the intellectual classes, has broken down the barriers between society and "play-actors", which prevented many people from freely following their bent. The self-styled "upper" classes have suffered a complete eclipse and no longer exist in their old form; their members are scattered to the four winds and have been in part "proletarianised", while the "new rich" are either aliens or come from classes of the population which have no social prejudices.

The younger generation, of course, shares the financial hardships due to this tremendous upheaval. The patrons of art who formerly fostered talent and defrayed the expenses of study are now but a memory. The scholarships of former days have depreciated with our currency, and have lost all value. Young aspirants have to go hungry or live from hand to mouth, eking out a precarious livelihood as supers in the theatres or members of the chorus in operas and musical comedies; in some cases they are even reduced to seeking employment in *cafés-chantants*, music-halls, picture theatres, etc.

The cinemas, which are springing up at every street-corner, compete to a dangerous extent with the old theatres and with dramatic art in general, as they offer cheap and sensational performances to the illiterate mob. When these dramas are effectively staged, and adapted to the popular taste of the moment, they are enthusiastically received by an audience whose love of display and thirst for superficial amusement they gratify to the full. We need hardly say that good taste suffers, and that serious efforts to elevate and purify popular culture are hampered by spectacles of this kind.

In the period immediately following the war, from 1918 to 1920, Vienna, in consequence of the depreciation of the crown, was flooded with foreigners, who entered heartily into the cheap pleasures of night life. The result was that a number of new *cafés-chantants*, night-clubs and other similar establishments were opened, in which dramatic artists were engaged to give lectures, act in sketches or recite. At that time Vienna was also frequented by a number of foreign film companies, who found labour cheap, and provided actors with extra employment at good pay. Since the stabilisation of the Austrian crown, and owing to the high cost of living in Vienna and the fall of the mark in Germany, the influx of foreigners has greatly diminished. Good openings for actors have therefore decreased, as many night theatres have closed down, and the film companies have transferred their activities to Germany. Extra employment is unobtainable in Vienna to-day. In the provinces the cost of living is nearly as high as in Vienna. Moreover, the provincial theatres are in an even worse position than those of Vienna. Municipalities and provincial governments are heavily in debt and incapable of granting subsidies, and actors are continually threatened with the danger that

their theatres will close down and their means of livelihood be gone. It is almost impossible for the head of a household to emigrate to Germany, since giving up a flat in these days involves selling the furniture, as the cost of removal would be enormous.

The pensions for old or disabled actors are very meagre, except in the case of those who have served in a State theatre ; otherwise they only receive 200,000 to 300,000 paper crowns a month !

Many actors and singers are unable to exercise their profession because they have no stage costumes.

The position of *men of letters* (including poets) must not be judged too superficially, as their circumstances vary perhaps even more than those of the intellectual workers we have been discussing. Some of them make a good deal of money, are widely read, produce "best-sellers", or have their plays frequently acted ; but the great majority are in an unenviable position, especially those who produce serious work displaying high moral qualities. Publishers hesitate to print their works, as the cost of printing has increased considerably, and the few publishing houses which exist in Austria are extremely cautious and chary of risking their money.

The great majority of well-known writers consequently prefer to go to German firms and have their articles printed in German reviews. The Swiss papers, with a few exceptions, are not inclined to accept foreign contributions. Austrian writers therefore also suffer from the fall in the German mark, and are exposed to all the consequences of its depreciation.

The theatres are rarely in a position to accept pieces of purely literary value. Those which made the venture either failed or had to give up the attempt. They are forced to make concessions to the taste of the new public of to-day, which has been described by two of our most eminent poets, in their reply to a questionnaire sent by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, as "brutal and despicable".

One of our best-known writers could easily improve his financial situation, which is none too good, if he would consent to write the book of a musical comedy for one of our most popular composers, who has repeatedly requested him to do so. His refusal to prostitute his talent to such work proves him to be a genuine poet.

Others are less fastidious and make a great deal of money out of writings of this kind, though these can hardly be called original productions. Some play, often an old one, is redecorated and clothed in modern dress, and if the advertising has been properly managed and a good press has been secured, it may draw full houses and make enormous profits.

The facts that new plays and operas are seldom added to the repertoire and that new scenery is rarely used is also detrimental to our authors.

The reading public of the old days, which used to buy and read serious literature, is now unable to afford it, and the "new rich", when they go in for literature, order their books in a wholesale manner ; their only idea is to have a large number of well-bound books on their shelves, and they leave the choice to the bookseller. The large proportion of foreigners among these "new rich" has also had unfortunate effects. There is little appreciation of really original authors, and especially of Austrian authors in close sympathy with the spirit of their native land. French, Russian and English writers are preferred. Detective stories of the Sherlock Holmes type sell like hot cakes, just as in the sphere of music it is the shallowest musical comedies which attract the crowd.

Lyric poetry was never a paying proposition. In our days lyric poets are in danger of starvation, as the contemplative spirit, without which this purest form of poetry cannot be appreciated, is totally lacking.

Young writers in particular, who work honestly without having recourse to the tricks of the trade or being boomed by their publishers, have little chance of success.

On the other hand, the Press sings the praises of time-serving writers, whose productions, which are of doubtful literary value, are written in support of the aims of their political factions. An attack on political opponents or the glorification of his own party, be it never so crude, is sure to "make" a writer, and the organs of his party may be relied upon to boom his plays and praise his books.

The rights of authorship of our Austrian writers have suffered severely from the war. In some cases their works have been printed abroad without the author being consulted or remunerated. This species of international piracy has developed at the expense of the defeated countries, depriving intellectual workers and publishers of the fruits of their labour. At the present moment American newspapers are printing the works of Austrians without possibility of hindrance and without paying any royalties to their authors.

As the majority of writers are unable to live upon the proceeds of their books or their contributions to German and Austrian reviews, many of them are obliged to seek employment as editors, librarians, dramatic critics, publishers' readers, etc. All these activities, however, take up much time and energy, so that it is rarely possible for these writers to improve their literary work and to increase their output.

There are no literary reviews in Austria. The German literary reviews either ignore Austrian literature altogether or barely mention it. Thus the special character of Austrian literature is hardly known beyond the frontiers of our little country, while, on the other hand, Austrian writers have little idea of the intellectual activities of other countries, as foreign reviews are as much beyond their reach as is travel abroad.

The P. E. N. Club has suggested the establishment of a similar club in Austria and is planning an international authors' organisation. Under this scheme, authors on their travels would receive a hospitable welcome in every country of the globe and would be given every facility, and access to all sources of information. The Austrian Club would, of course, require the necessary resources to enable it to cultivate foreign relations. There is an urgent need of a reading-room with foreign periodicals and newspapers, and a library containing the most important foreign books, as well as a special correspondence service, with carefully-kept registers, between the associations of the different countries for the mutual exchange of information of every kind regarding the literary world.

In conclusion, we must make some reference to the group of men of letters covered by the term *journalists*. The greatly increased cost of production of daily papers — a cost which is most felt in the purchase of large quantities of paper and the payment of printers' wages — has compelled many papers to discontinue publication. Other journals only appear once a week, and many journalists have therefore lost their employment and have been obliged to seek a living in other directions. Newspaper subscriptions have had to be raised considerably, which has resulted in the loss of many readers.

The breaking-off of political relations at the beginning of the war deprived many journalists, who had been the regular correspondents of foreign papers, of their source of income. More recently, the fall in the mark has greatly aggravated the financial difficulties of a number of journalists.

Austrian reporters and the contributors of daily articles also found their activities curtailed in consequence of the war, as events at the front monopolised public attention and relegated every other kind of news to the background. Theatrical and sporting intelligence lost their interest, and, in fact, sport practically ceased, as the young men were all in the army; very few new plays were produced, and exhibitions became few and far between in Austria, while it was, of course, impossible to give any account of exhibitions abroad.

The character of newspapers was completely altered by the war. In the excitement of the struggle, the need was for short and concise reports and definite statements of fact. The public thirsted for sensation. Then came chaos, the depreciation of the Austrian crown and the terrible increase in the cost of living. And in their train came speculation, which spread to classes of the population to which it had till then been unknown; profiteering in foodstuffs and speculation in foreign currencies became the fashion. Newspapers had to publish the stock exchange prices, the news from foreign markets and financial articles. The columns of the daily papers were filled with advertisements of new business methods or of stockbrokers and business agents, and with announcements of flats to be let, exchanged or sold. New papers were founded representing the organisations patronised by the "new rich" and dedicated exclusively to their interests. Many journalists succumbed to the lure of the stock exchange and endeavoured to turn to account their talents and the knowledge and experience acquired by their daily contact with speculative circles. The dangerous tendency towards an alliance between journalism and

speculation is daily gaining ground, while at the same time the difficulties of the journalistic calling are increasing, as so many of the foreign newspapers, periodicals and books which journalists need for their work have become unobtainable owing to their price.

These difficult circumstances have been somewhat relieved by the existence of active journalists' associations. The most important are the "Concordia" and the "Vienna Press Organisation", which, by establishing "collective contracts", have safeguarded the rights of the salaried editor against the proprietor of the newspaper ; they have secured the adjustment of salaries more or less in proportion to the depreciation of the currency, they provide assistance to widows, orphans, and their sick members, and they have formed a provident fund. Provincial journalism has followed suit and founded a similar organisation. Moreover, the National Council has passed a law which regulates the legal rights of journalists and entitles them to claim compensation for dismissal if their journal changes its political complexion or ceases to appear.

These efforts have not, however, compensated the older journalists for the loss of the savings which they had invested in private insurance companies, or in their own provident funds, in the hope of providing themselves with a pension or with the means of supporting their families.

The correspondents of the foreign Press have formed two organisations, the Foreign Press Union and the Foreign Press Association, which represent them in their dealings with the public authorities and assist them in the exercise of their profession.

ANNEX.

TABLE 1.

Number of Students at the University of Vienna.

[illegible]

EXPLANATORY NOTE TO TABLE I.

University of Vienna.

Until the summer term of 1919, students were entered according to the provinces of the Hapsburg Monarchy to which they belonged. After this period, many of these provinces became part of new States. In this table, for purposes of comparison, we have added the figures for the former provinces of the Monarchy, from 1912 onwards, to the States to which they now belong. The figures in brackets given above the other figures up to 1919 refer to the districts which have never formed part of Austria.

Under the heading of Austria we include only Upper and Lower Austria, Styria, Carinthia, the Province of Salzburg, the Tyrol and the Vorarlberg. These provinces correspond more or less to the new Austria. Notwithstanding the loss of part of Styria and Carinthia, the number of Austrian students has increased since the war.

Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia are included in Czechoslovakia. We have taken no account of Slovakia, which was ceded by Hungary, but this district has never furnished many students to the University of Vienna. The number of Bohemian, Moravian and Silesian students at Vienna has fallen off owing to their preference for the German university of Prague (see Table IV).

The Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes includes, in addition to Serbia, Carniola, Croatia, Slavonia, Bosnia, Herzegovina and Dalmatia. Notwithstanding the creation of the University of Ljubljana (Laibach), many Serb-Croat-Slovene students still attend the University of Vienna.

Istria, Gorizia and Gradisca, together with Trieste, are included in Italy. The number of Italian students at the University of Vienna has decreased.

Roumania, which includes the former Austro-Hungarian provinces of the Bukovina and Transylvania, sends more students to Vienna than before the war.

The large number of students from Galicia, which is now part of Poland, is remarkable. While, since the beginning of the war, the number of the students from the former provinces of the Austrian Monarchy has fallen by 50 %, the number of students from Galicia has nearly doubled. Many Galician students have subsequently acquired the status of Austrian citizens, and are thus counted as Austrians, so that the decrease in students of Polish origin since 1919 is only an apparent one. Poland now takes second place, with 15 % of the students, whereas before the war she only came third.

The number of students from Eastern Europe (Russia and the Ukraine, Bulgaria, etc.) has increased. Many Bulgarians also go to the Universities of Graz and Innsbruck.

As the table shows, nationals of enemy countries have never been precluded, even during the war, from studying in the Austrian universities.

The University of Vienna can justly claim to be an international institution, as an average of from 45 to 50 % of its students come from abroad.

TABLE II.

**Number of Students at the
University of Graz.**

Winter and Summer Terms	Austria	Hungary	Foreign Countries	Total
W. term 1912-13	1942	128	81	2151
S. » 1913	1739	118	78	1935
W. » 1913-14	1972	128	110	2210
S. » 1914	1819	129	122	2070
W. » 1914-15	1133	66	40	1239
S. » 1915	723	40	21	784
W. » 1915-16	732	60	25	817
S. » 1916	595	57	21	673
W. » 1916-17	779	96	31	906
S. » 1917	602	86	29	717
W. » 1917-18	984	108	50	1142
S. » 1918	1312	132	57	1501
W. » 1918-19	1762	137	50	1949
S. » 1919	1329	63	50	1442
W. » 1919-20	1563	33	295	1891
S. » 1920				
W. » 1920-21	2327			2327
S. » 1921	1471		788	2259
W. » 1921-22	1668		1054	2722
S. » 1922	1814		802	2616

NOTE. — From the winter term of 1920-21 onwards, the statistics, as in the table for Vienna, take into account the new territorial divisions; this explains the decrease in the number of foreign students. Notwithstanding the political isolation of Austria, the influx of students from the Succession States has not fallen off. The most numerous body of foreign students attending the University of Graz is the Serb-Croat-Slovene (approximately 14 %). About 10 % are Bulgarians.

TABLE III.

**Number of Students at the
University of Innsbruck.**

Winter and Summer Terms	Austria	Hungary	Foreign Countries	Total
W. term 1912-13	1000	110	254	1364
S. » 1913	936	97	276	1309
W. » 1913-14	1063	129	288	1480
S. » 1914	1029	112	281	1422
W. » 1914-15	631	104	131	866
S. » 1915	454	88	107	649
W. » 1915-16	425	110	78	613
S. » 1916	407	108	76	591
W. » 1916-17	521	117	85	723
S. » 1917	433	99	79	611
W. » 1917-18	778	132	72	982
S. » 1918	1025	134	76	1235
W. » 1918-19	1416	50	45	1511
S. » 1919	1474	39	75	1688
W. » 1919-20	1808	47	113	1968
S. » 1920	1480	46	156	1682
W. » 1920-21	1042		849	1891
S. » 1921	1120		905	2025
W. » 1921-22	1173		842	2015
S. » 1922	993		797	1790

NOTE. — From the winter term of 1920-21 onwards, the statistics have taken into account the new territorial divisions. The Faculty of Theology attracts most of the foreign students (about 80 %). German students are the most numerous and Bulgarians come second.

TABLE IV.

Number of Students at the German University
of Prague*.

Winter and Summer Terms	Czecho- slovakia	Austria	Germany	Serb- Croat- Slovene Kingdom	Rou- mania	Poland (Galicia)	Russia and Ukraine	Italy	Hungary	Other Foreign Coun- tries	TOTAL
W. term 1912-13	1818	81	30	23 (1)	9	17	64	(1) 12	13	1	2,068
S. » 1913	1687	72	34	20 (1)	8	15	66	(2) 13	12	1	1,928
W. » 1913-14	1960	103	27	22 (1)	9	15	121	(1) 16	17	5	2,295
S. » 1914	1732	98	28	17 (1)	(1) 12	16	126	(1) 16	15	7	2,067
W. » 1914-15	1074	55	20	3	4	58	—	4	6	5	1,229
S. » 1915	753	36	16	2	5	52	—	4	4	6	878
W. » 1915-16	643	26	9	3	5	31	—	4	8	4	733
S. » 1916	579	27	8	5	2	25	—	4	12	5	667
W. » 1916-17	643	25	6	9	24	57	—	5	29	2	800
S. » 1917	522	20	7	7	14	45	—	1	15	1	632
W. » 1917-18	839	41	7	8	25	81	—	5	23	2	1,031
S. » 1918	1245	67	10	9	19	86	15	6	30	3	1,490
W. » 1918-19											2,071
S. » 1919											1,930
W. » 1919-20											3,065
S. » 1920											3,319
W. » 1920-21	3409	42	23	53	63	24	68	—	4	17	3,703
S. » 1921	3109	35	19	41	61	40	37	—	4	7	3,353

NOTE. — See Table I for the figures and explanation of the names of the countries.

*. General information in regard to the German University of Prague, the statistics of which are given here for purposes of comparison, will be found in the pamphlet of this series on the Czechoslovak Universities.

(Note by the Secretariat of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.)

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO THE
CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series

INTELLECTUAL LIFE

in the

VARIOUS COUNTRIES

BELGIUM

NOTES INTENDED TO SERVE AS A CONTRIBUTION TO A
GENERAL STATISTICAL SURVEY OF POPULAR EDUCATION

By Julien LUCHAIRE

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Expert on the Committee for Intellectual Co-operation.

NOTE

The object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing this series of pamphlets is to call attention to the problems of organisation and intellectual assistance to which each subject gives rise. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but desires rather to bring them to the notice of the public and to provide an opportunity for further suggestions.

NOTES INTENDED TO SERVE AS A CONTRIBUTION TO A GENERAL STATISTICAL SURVEY OF POPULAR EDUCATION

By JULIEN LUCHAIRE

Belgium is rightly included among those European countries whose official statistics supply exceptionally abundant material for a general statistical survey of intellectual life. In addition, the study of social phenomena is held in high esteem in that country, and consequently copious and valuable information on the question under discussion may be obtained from several institutions, *e.g.*, the Central Statistical Commission (rue de Louvain, Brussels) and the *Palais Mondial* in Brussels, at which a Belgian bibliography on a large scale has been prepared. To judge from the friendly manner in which the enquiries which we made have invariably been received, our undertaking is regarded with favour and is arousing a great deal of interest; and it seems reasonably certain that Belgium will be one of the first countries for which we shall be able to prepare a satisfactory conspectus of intellectual life. The limited area of the country and the variety and importance of its intellectual activities make it an excellent field for investigation.

Our present contribution does not claim to be anything but a bare outline; even with the available material we could have produced a more satisfactory survey if we had bestowed on this particular enquiry some of the time which we thought it better this year to devote to a number of countries and a great variety of subjects.

Part 2 of the *Annuaire statistique de la Belgique et du Congo belge*, published by the Ministry of the Interior and Public Health (Vol. XLV, 1914, and Vol. XLVI, 1915-1919), is entitled: "Political, Intellectual and Moral Data". (The first part is described as Territory and Population and the third part as Agricultural, Industrial and Commercial Data.) The second part is subdivided into Elections, Education, Literature and the Fine Arts, Savings Bank, Associations, Welfare, Co-operation, Justice, Medicine, Army and Finance. The table of contents for the chapter on Education gives references to other headings under which data on special forms of education (industrial, agricultural and military) are supplied. The general title of the second part can scarcely be described as altogether appropriate in view of the variety of the subject-matter which it contains, but the two chapters on Education and Literature and Art, together with their annexes, to which reference is made in the table of contents, contain practically everything necessary for our purpose. The chapter on Literature and Art has the merit of giving in compendious form information concerning periodicals and art exhibitions which is rarely found in statistical returns. It is unfortunate that certain data given in the 1914 Yearbook have been omitted in the editions from 1915 to 1919, *e.g.*, the classification of the population according to their educational level at various ages; education of soldiers serving under the colours; education of discharged soldiers; courses for the illiterate; regimental schools; evening courses and special courses; number of pupils and results of examinations held in connection with the courses for the illiterate during the year, separate returns being made for the Flemish and the Walloon candidates; the educational standard of apprentices in workshops; classification of inhabitants according to profession or occupation; distribution of the two national languages.

Mention should also be made of a most useful memorandum summarising the whole work of education in Belgium, published in 1921 by M. Jules Destrée, Minister for Science and Art. This memorandum, which is called "L'aide à qui veut s'instruire" (a publication issued by the Ministry for Science and Art), has also been consulted.

General elementary education may be regarded as in the main the result of the combined influence of elementary instruction, the reading of children's books, popular literature and newspapers, and theatrical and cinematograph performances.

In Belgium, elementary education is given in the infant schools (*écoles gardiennes*) and elementary and adult schools. Compulsory education was introduced in Belgium by the law

dated May 19th, 1914; but attendance at infant and adult schools is not compulsory. A comparison between the number of pupils attending elementary schools before and after 1914, however, shows that, by the time attendance was made compulsory by law, voluntary attendance at elementary schools was already the almost universal rule. The great effort which raised school attendance in Belgium to a high level was made between 1880 and 1910. Returns taken from the tables on that subject in the *Annuaire statistique* are as follows : number of pupils at elementary schools (commercial, "adopted", private, and in receipt of grants) in 1881: 340,118; in 1890 : 616,041; in 1900 : 793,915; and in 1910 : 929,347. During the same period, the population increased from 5,585,846 to 7,423,784. A comparison between these figures will show how much progress has been made. The example of Belgium shows that a country, without resorting to stringent measures, can in thirty years' time pass from an average to a high standard of elementary education; down to 1880, only one person in 16 was entered on the rolls of an elementary school, while by 1910, the proportion was nearly 1 in 7. We therefore think it would be a matter of special interest to the Committee to ascertain the causes which brought about so rapid and satisfactory an increase in the attendance at the elementary schools in that country.

The present law lays down that every Belgian child must attend school regularly for eight years, reckoning from the year in which it reaches the age of six, that is to say, until the age of fourteen. A note kindly forwarded to us by the Belgian Ministry of Science and Art states that "the number of children evading this provision and receiving no education is almost negligible, but it is impossible to give accurate figures". It thus appears highly probable that the Belgian Government has no means of ascertaining the number of children who receive no school education. In all likelihood, too, it has no means of finding out how many children are not receiving adequate instruction. But countries in which a very high proportion of the children are enrolled on the school registers are confronted with two serious problems : first, that of regularity of attendance, and secondly—in this case the factors are more difficult to determine—that of the actual results of the teaching, for irregular attendance is not the only cause of an inadequate standard of general education in such countries. A high standard of attendance is, of course, a favourable sign. But it would be particularly desirable that a nation which has done a great deal for the development of education should draw up and publish statistics showing the actual value and extent of the results obtained. The Belgian Ministry of the Interior has not yet published the decennial statistics of illiterates which should have appeared in 1920. But even when they are published, we shall possess no more definite information than we do for all, or practically all, other countries, for we shall know neither the inadequacy of the results, obtained in the schools nor the value of the teaching.

As is the case also in other countries, Belgian statistics do not give figures showing successes and failures in the final examination at the elementary schools, nor do they give figures showing the average value of the tests in this examination year by year. However, the Ministry of Science and Art, which has replied with the utmost readiness to the numerous questions we asked it, informs us that, out of the 14,688 pupils who presented themselves for examination in 1922 at the close of the elementary school course, 10,922 obtained either a third- or fourth-class certificate, and the ministerial note adds : "It should be stated that entrance for this examination is optional and that many schools send in no candidates." Indeed, if all the scholars were entered regularly at the conclusion of their eight years of study, the number of candidates, reckoned on the present elementary-school attendance, would be 120,000, i.e., ten times the figure given above. It is therefore evident that in Belgium the examination test is not an adequate means for estimating the real value, or even the general results, of elementary education. This statement assuredly does not apply to Belgium alone, and the observations which we have just made are far from being intended as a criticism on the administration of that country; we merely wish to take this opportunity of requesting the Committee to consider *whether it would not be desirable to establish a standard to assess the value of elementary education which might be adopted by all nations, which would enable individual countries to compare their progress with that made in other countries and which would thus lead to improvement all round.*

On January 1st, 1921, there were 8,087 schools in Belgium with 25,737 classes, 966,457 pupils and a teaching staff of 26,856. To these figures should be added those of the elementary schools which are entirely free and are not subject to the provisions of the Education Act. The Administration possesses no recent official information on these institutions; but in 1910 the establishments inspected by the secular and regular clergy were attended by about 50,000 pupils, and

those in which no inspection whatever takes place by about 8,000. In addition, there are elementary classes in the intermediate schools, with about 20,000 pupils (20,957 on December 31st, 1919). In Belgium, out of a population of just under eight million, more than a million pupils are accordingly receiving elementary education, and on an average there is one teacher for about 35 pupils. In 1881, the number of pupils was 340,118 (public elementary schools), with 8,328 masters and mistresses, *i.e.*, about one teacher to 40 pupils. Considerable progress has thus been made not only in actual numbers, but also in regard to the quality of the teaching, at any rate as far as recognition of the importance of the principle of small classes and more individual attention is concerned.

But progress is dependent on yet another condition—the efficiency of the teacher. In this matter, Belgian official statistics only give one item of information—the proportion of pupils enrolled in the normal schools to certificated teachers leaving these schools. In 1920, the proportion of those obtaining certificates to enrolled students was about 1 in 7; in 1919 it was about 1 in 4. These figures should be accepted with reserve, especially as there is reason to believe that—as was the case almost everywhere else—the standard of examination was lowered considerably after the War. Here again we have no criterion by which to appraise the true value of the examinations.

A third condition is the possession of adequate material equipment and an abundant supply of first-rate educational apparatus. In Belgium, the cost of providing for all the material requirements of elementary education is borne by the communes in the case of the communal schools, and by the committees or governing bodies in the case of “adopted” schools (unless the commune assumes the responsibility for them) and also of private schools and schools receiving grants. (An “adopted” school is a private school which signs a contract with the commune and accepts its control in return for certain advantages; the staffs of the “adopted” schools and of the free schools in receipt of grants are paid for by the State in the same way as the staff of the communal schools strictly so called.) Although not legally bound to do so, the State defrays part of the cost of building and equipping the communal schools, and each year Parliament places funds for the purpose at the disposal of the Science and Art Department. The contribution made by the State is generally fixed at a third of the total expenditure on the work. The provinces also give grants (often equivalent to a sixth of the expenditure). We have been unable to collect the data required for ascertaining the amount which Belgium expends yearly on the material side of elementary education. The budget of the Department necessarily only gives incomplete information on the subject; the statistics of expenditure in the Communes and Provinces under the new Education Law cannot be prepared for 1921 until the accounts for that year have been finally passed, and it would also be necessary for us to possess the main figures in the budgets of the private schools.

On the other hand, there is no difficulty in ascertaining the amount spent by the State on teachers’ salaries and, the general costs of administration. They are as follows :

1923 budget : costs of administration and inspection,		
and miscellaneous		4,859,050 francs
Salaries and allowances of staff in elementary schools. .	209,983,000	»
Salaries and allowances of staff in normal schools. . . .	10,210,000	»

But the above constitutes only a part of the sums devoted by Belgium to elementary education; and, as we have seen, it is no easy matter to give even a rough estimate of this expenditure.

We venture to point out here the great value, in making trustworthy estimates, of the above items of expenditure in all the various countries, as they furnish a criterion of the interest shown by individual nations in this work, which forms the basis of all intellectual development. It is to be feared that the figures so often given, *i.e.*, the percentage of the total expenditure of the State which is devoted to public education, are wholly insufficient, as they do not take into account all the other sources from which the schools obtain revenue. *The Committee may perhaps consider that it would be desirable to draw up, if need be with the help of specialists in elementary education, a tabular statement to show the full extent of the financial effort made by each nation towards the development of elementary instruction, together with the principal technical improvements effected each year.* Everything which has no direct bearing on the object in view should be eli-

minated; elementary education is a subject of constant solicitude in all advanced countries and the mere record of the vast number of detailed regulations, experiments and discussions to which it gives rise fills whole volumes every year. Here, as elsewhere, an enquiry carried out under the auspices of the Committee should avoid excessive detail and should aim at ascertaining measures of practical utility and the factors which make for progress. Such an enquiry would be of advantage to all. Naturally the Committee makes no claim whatsoever to interfere in the organisation of elementary or secondary education in the various countries, but it will doubtless be conceded that it has the right in the general interest to stimulate a friendly international rivalry by publishing from time to time the most striking results of its enquiry. A stimulus of this nature is given by international congresses of specialists; but its influence is confined to these limited circles. I venture to think that clear and concise publications issued by the Committee would reach a wider public, and would attract universal attention to the progress already made and the work which has yet to be done.

The subject of elementary education in Belgium calls for a few further remarks. There were 3,381 infant schools (known in Belgium as "*écoles gardiennes*") on January 1st, 1921, with 5,432 classes, a roll of 178,504 pupils, and a teaching staff of 5,466, *i.e.*, one mistress to about 32 pupils. The attendance at the infant schools is about one-fifth of that at the elementary schools. The numbers attending these schools fell from 282,708 in 1913 to 205,418 in 1919, and there was a further decrease in the following year. This was due to the decline in the birth-rate during the War; the Belgian Administration hopes that next year will mark the beginning of a recovery. This is all the more desirable in view of the remarkable increase in the attendance at the infant schools during the twenty years after 1880, in the course of which it increased fivefold. The Belgian State has nothing to do with the opening and management of these schools; it merely makes grants and pays and inspects the staff.

The numbers in the adult schools have also decreased, but obviously for other reasons. They rose from 76,918 in 1881 to 240,019 in 1910, but fell again to 159,677 in 1913; they increased to 174,044 in 1919, with a subsequent decrease to 136,733 on January 1st, 1921. At our request, the Belgian Administration was good enough to furnish the following explanation: "Various causes have brought about a decrease in attendance at the courses for adults. The law obliges children to attend school for eight years; they consequently get a better education, and as a result the courses for adults, and even the continuation classes, are no longer required to the same extent as formerly. The pupils are better prepared at the elementary schools; they can attend the vocational or commercial courses which are to be found almost everywhere. The adult courses, therefore, should be reorganised. The Council for the Improvement of Elementary Education is dealing with this question. The present economic situation also accounts for the decrease in attendance at the adult schools. In certain districts the younger generation, attracted by higher wages, leave their homes for the industrial centres or for foreign countries."

These data give results which are to a certain extent contradictory. On the one hand, a higher standard in elementary-school education is paving the way for a corresponding rise in the level of adult education; on the other hand, many young persons are now less eager to complete their general education. The Committee will recognise that this is a subject of particular interest. The training of the masses for trades and professions will always find support and encouragement amongst the representatives of the great economic interests; but that is not the case with general education. Thus there is reason to believe that, as regards popular education, once the question of the elementary schools has been settled, the education of adults will become the great problem for advanced nations.

The Committee will therefore, no doubt, desire information as to the result of the forthcoming discussions of the Council for the Improvement of Elementary Education in Belgium. It may even desire to *open* a more general enquiry into the present position of popular adult education among the principal nations, or at least to instruct the investigators it may appoint to devote special attention to this subject.

It may be asked whether in Belgium, as in other countries, the obstacles to the growth of the adult school movement do not lie to some extent in the ever-increasing facilities of various kinds for completing their general education which are offered to working men in other directions. In dealing with intellectual life and all the manifold activities of the human intelligence, we should always consider all the possible ways in which these activities can find an outlet and not confine our attention to the time-honoured forms, and especially to those under the supervision

of the authorities. The solution of the problem of the general education of adults in the working classes is, evidently, not to be found in the adult schools alone.

Popular libraries also play a part. However, in Belgium, the returns regarding "communal public libraries and popular libraries established under the auspices of the public administration" give hardly any idea of their importance from the point of view of popular education. We shall have to deal more fully with this matter. In 1919 there were 1,102 libraries of this kind in Belgium; 770 of the 2,638 communes in the kingdom possessed a library. 125,486 readers used these libraries during that year, and 209,648 persons borrowed books. (The population of Belgium for the year in question was 7,577,027.) One hundred and one communes with from 5,000 to 25,000 inhabitants and four communes with over 25,000 inhabitants possessed no library. Confining ourselves to these figures alone, and without comparing them with similar data in other countries, we may assume that a movement like that of the communal and popular public libraries, which does not touch one-twentieth of the population, exerts a very slight influence on the development of general education among the working classes. This inference; however, requires to be verified.

Statistics of books bought by the same classes of the population would be instructive, but we have not been able to obtain any figures on the subject.

The reading of newspapers, as we pointed out earlier, is another element in general popular education, but here again there are practically no official statistics. The data referring to the Belgian periodical press disappeared during the German occupation; the table published in the *Statistical Yearbook* for the years previous to 1912 and also for 1919 was prepared from information supplied by the Postal Administration; even the publication of these statistics in greater detail would very probably give no further information concerning the circulation of the various newspapers or their character. This table shows that, in consequence of the War, the number of daily papers (which was 94 in 1911) had fallen to 73 by 1919; but the War had much more disastrous effects on periodicals other than daily newspapers, which decreased from 2,133 in 1911 to 613 in 1919. It may be inferred that such a wholesale disappearance of periodicals appreciably decreases, throughout the whole country, the opportunities for reading and consequently the means of instruction. That is the utmost we can say at the present stage of our investigations.

Moreover, we are aware that research in this field will be a difficult matter. *Satisfactory statistics concerning the daily and periodical press which would enable us to estimate the part it plays in the intellectual training of the public have not, we believe, been compiled in any country; this again would be a useful subject of enquiry for the Committee.* However, if the Belgian or any other State Administration were willing to undertake an investigation of this kind as an experiment, we should, no doubt, find material for most interesting observations touching directly upon the activities of the Committee. It is obvious that, at all stages of intellectual life, the daily press will furnish a vast collection of ideas and subjects for thought; and that, for the intellectual development of the masses and even of persons with some pretensions to culture, this daily acquisition of knowledge supplements, and is assimilated with, the knowledge acquired at school and from books. It is therefore not a negligible factor.

Our enquiries into the influence exercised by the theatre and the cinematograph are still in progress and we shall give the results later.

A sketch of the conditions under which intellectual life among the working classes in Belgium is developing would not be complete unless information was given regarding the work of all societies and institutions which concern themselves in any way with popular education. There are a large number of these institutions in Belgium. In the matter of elementary education, the Law of September 5th, 1919, setting up the National Society for the Promotion of Child Welfare (*L'Œuvre nationale de l'enfance*) was, no doubt, intended by the State to complete fittingly the work begun by private initiative.

Amongst other useful institutions with this object in view, the Social Service Schools (*Écoles de service social*) may be mentioned; these were organised by a Royal Decree dated October 15th, 1920, instituting a "Council for Social Service Schools" attached to the Ministry of Justice. This Council drew up the programme of a course of study for a diploma as social helper in various branches, for instance: "appointments in child welfare institutions, posts as director or assistant in educational institutions or child-welfare organisation, and as supervisor of public libraries". The curriculum of the Central Social Service School at Brussels includes the study of the prin-

cial laws on public education, teaching institutions, a course of psychology, a course of pedagogy, the study of books for use in schools and continuation schools, suggestions on the choice of a profession, art in the home, and methods applied in statistics and documentation. The programme of study for public librarians is worthy of reproduction :

Construction, equipment, financial direction and administration of libraries and kindred institutions.

Special libraries. Libraries for children and young persons. The book from the technical point of view; purchase of books. The book as an intellectual work. Choice of books. Bibliography : classification of books and periodicals according to subject matter; catalogues; works of reference and official documents. The history of literature. How to ensure the success of a library; present-day problems; co-operation with educational institutions; the children's story hour. How to educate readers and counteract frivolous and pernicious reading.

Visits to libraries, publishing houses, bookbinding establishments, public sale-rooms, reading-rooms, printing works and studios for photo-engraving.

Courses of practical training in public libraries, the International Institute of Bibliography, children's libraries and the Royal Library; the art library and libraries connected with social institutions.

Introductory courses on educational methods, popular lectures on social subjects, etc., have also been provided.

Finally, in this country, where the cleavage between the political parties is very marked and where political feeling tends to colour the whole daily life of the adherents of these parties, it will be necessary to study the intellectual activities of certain popular Catholic institutions and of socialist institutions such as the "*Maison du peuple*" at Ghent.

A question as complex and elusive as the general culture of a nation cannot be dealt with until all the above-mentioned data are available. A skilful selection of purely relevant data would, we repeat, do much to curtail the time required for such research. Similar investigations carried out in other countries will help to reveal the best methods of setting to work and will save time. For further information on this point readers are referred to our report, *Notes on the Methods of compiling Statistics of Intellectual Life*.

Simultaneously with the present report, we are finishing a sequel to it, entitled *General Education of the Middle Classes in Belgium*. It is already possible to show the connection between the two by reminding readers that M. Jules Destrée, Minister for Science and Art in 1921, whose work contributed largely to the development of the intellectual life of Belgium, introduced a law on October 15th of that year for the education of children of outstanding ability (*Loi relative aux mieux doués*). This law established a system of selection of the best pupils from elementary schools for further teaching in secondary and higher schools. It is a practical application of a principle which is often repeated during discussions on public education in all countries, but rarely carried into effect—that every human being with first-rate abilities, no matter to what class he or she may belong, should be given the best possible education, and that it is the duty of the community to remove obstacles due to poverty. The advance which this law makes on the system of scholarships in force in other countries is brought out in Article 26, which states that, in fixing the grant, account may be taken of income which might have been earned during the period of study; it is, in fact, recognised that scholarships which merely meet the cost of education do not compensate for all the expenditure actually incurred by the families of the students as a result of the prolonged period of study, and do not always lead to the selection of the best-qualified candidates.

We are strongly in favour of the Belgian system of a special law, formally instituting special funds administered by provincial and communal bodies, and of selection committees composed of prominent local citizens. It is essential that the reward for ability should be bestowed in such a manner as to make the strongest appeal to the popular imagination.

Here again is a subject which for several reasons is of particular interest to the Committee. It may perhaps desire to place on its agenda the problem of how to recruit the best intellects from among the masses.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO
THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series

INTELLECTUAL LIFE
IN THE
VARIOUS COUNTRIES

United States of America

The Principal American Foundations

By

Henri REVERDIN

Professor at the University of Geneva

Expert on the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation

THE PRINCIPAL AMERICAN FOUNDATIONS

Among the institutions and foundations in the United States of America which afford valuable assistance to intellectual life we shall in the present note deal with :

The Smithsonian Institution,
The Carnegie Foundation,
The Rockefeller Foundation.

I.

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

"The Smithsonian Institution for increase and diffusion of knowledge among men" was established by means of a legacy bequeathed by James Smithson, an Englishman, who was born in Somerset in 1765 and died at Genoa in 1829. Smithson had spent the greater part of his life in Paris with French *savants*, among whom was Arago ; his publications did not bring him the fame which he had hoped would be his when, in his youth, he said : " My name will live on in the memory of man when the titles of the Northumberland are extinct and forgotten" ; but his legacy secured him the immortality which had been his ambition.

His donation, first offered to England, which did not consider its terms sufficiently definite, was accepted in 1846 by the United States, owing to the efforts of John Quincy Adams.

The Institution is established at Washington and the President of the United States is *ex officio* its president. The " Board of Regents " includes a certain number of members of Congress ; the secretary of the Institution is at the same time President of the National Museum, which is maintained out of Federal funds.

As the meaning of the terms " increase " and " diffusion " was not clearly enough defined, some doubt was felt with regard to the purpose of the Institution. The question arose as to whether it was intended for an institute for research work or for a museum.

Joseph Henry, who had been appointed as Secretary, submitted a programme in which he determined the meaning of the words " increase " and " diffusion " : (1) to stimulate men of talent to make original researches by offering rewards for papers containing new truths ; and (2) to appropriate annually a portion of the income for particular research under direction of suitable persons. To " diffuse knowledge " he proposed : (1) to publish periodically reports on the progress of different branches of knowledge ; and (2) to publish occasional separate treatises on general subjects.

This programme was adopted by the Board of Regents ; as broadly taken, it has been maintained.

Joseph Henry developed the system of International Exchanges of Publications.

S. F. Baird, who succeeded him, devoted his efforts to the development of the museum, for which he had a building erected ; he supervised the building of the vessel *Albatross* for purposes of scientific exploration.

The Secretary, S. P. Langley, who made experiments in aviation, was specially interested in the National Zoological Park and the Astrophysical Observatory. He was succeeded by the present Secretary, Mr. D. C. Walcott.

Among recent activities, mention should be made of geological explorations, palæontological research and biological and botanical work in Cuba, Haiti, China, San Domingo, etc.

There is no clause to limit the number of subjects of research. The Institution publishes papers on anthropology, astronomy, ethnology, botany, geology, palæontology, meteorology, magnetism, physics, physiology, philology, etc.

The following are its principal publications : Annual Reports submitted to Congress by the Regents ; the Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge ; the Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collection (about 30,000 pages) ; the Bulletins of the National Museum (since 1878) ; the Annual Reports of the Bureau of American Ethnology ; the Bulletins of the Bureau of American Ethnology ; the Annals of the Astrophysical Observatory ; the reports of the Historical and Patriotic Societies. The History of the Institution during the first fifty years of its existence was published in 1897.

The Smithsonian Institution possesses a *research library*. The publication of the various series of papers has led to a very active correspondence with the learned societies. The majority of the communications have been deposited in the Congress Library. The Institution also possesses a *working library* containing more than 300 American or foreign periodicals.

The first assistant Secretary, Ch. C. Jowett, devoted his entire attention to the catalogue and bibliography. His successor, Henry, also took a great interest in this side of the work, and it was at his suggestion that the Royal Society in London began its catalogue of scientific articles, which has since become the catalogue of international scientific literature. As regards its share of this work, the Smithsonian Institute represents the United States. It has established a *regional bureau for the United States of the international catalogue of scientific literature*.

In the annual report for the year ending June 30th, 1920, Mr. Henry E. Armstrong mentions with admiration the 242 volumes containing an index of the scientific literature published between 1901 and 1914, to which the majority of countries have contributed. The author hopes that such collaboration will be resumed after the war in spite of financial difficulties.

The Service of International Exchanges dates from the year 1850. Its object was to establish a free exchange of publications between men of science in the various parts of the world. It is in communication with numerous correspondents — their number has nearly reached 50,000 — two-thirds of whom reside outside the United States. In 1867, Congress, for the benefit of its Library, instructed the Institution to exchange fifty series of all official publications (the number was increased to 100). A treaty concluded in 1889 between the United States and other countries settled the question of the exchange of scientific and official publications. This service has already been of extreme value to scientists and has largely contributed to the development of American libraries ; by undertaking to defray the cost of such publications, it has enabled societies and scholars to save considerable sums for their own research work.

The report on the financial period ending June 30th, 1922, gives the following figures :

<i>Consignments from America.</i>	<i>Consignments from other countries to America.</i>
344,848 parcels. Weight : 497,148 lbs.	38,309 parcels. Weight : 95,452 lbs.

We have already mentioned the *Bureau of American Ethnology*. This bureau, which has been attached to the Institution since 1879, undertakes research work on the language of the Indians, their habits, customs, organisation in tribes and mythological conceptions.

The *Astrophysical Observatory* was established in 1890. It is intended chiefly for research work dealing with the invisible portion of the solar spectrum lying beyond the infra-red. It has organised important expeditions for the purpose of observing total eclipses of the sun.

The *National Zoological Park* was established by Congress in 1890. Its object is to preserve from total extinction American fauna which is fast disappearing from that continent. It is also intended for public instruction and amusement.

The *National Art Gallery* is also attached to the Institution.

II.

CARNEGIE FOUNDATION.

The generosity of Mr. Andrew Carnegie, who was born in Scotland at Dunfermline in 1835, and died at Lenox, Massachusetts, in 1919, provided funds for the following institutions:

A. Carnegie Institute of Pittsburg.

This institution, founded in 1896, comprises a group of cultural and educational departments embracing Fine Arts, Museum, Music Hall, Library, School and Institute of Technology.

The great *Carnegie Library Pittsburg System* is added to the departments named ; it was founded in 1890.

In 1918, Mr. Carnegie's gifts amounted to 28,000,000 dollars. The Library is a free public reference and circulating library (founded in 1890) and it contains a total number of nearly 450,000 volumes, of which about 40,000 in foreign languages. A special children's department makes a study of children's literature.

B. Carnegie Institution of Washington.

Founded in 1902, to encourage in the broadest and most liberal manner investigations, research and discovery, and the application of knowledge to the improvement of mankind.

The principal departments are :

Department of Experimental Evolution	1903
— Marine Biology	1903
— Historical Research	1903
— Economics and Sociology (suppressed in 1916)	1904
— Terrestrial Magnetism	1904
— Mount Wilson Observatory	1904
— Geophysical Laboratory	1905
— Botanical Research	1905
— Nutrition Laboratory	1906
— Meridian Astrometry.....	1907
— Embryology.....	1914
— Eugenic Record Office	1917

The results of the researches have been published in 450 volumes. These publications have been purchased by or presented to nearly all the leading libraries of the world. The total fund placed at the disposal of the Institution up to October 1918 amounted to 15,459,944.45 dollars. The yearly budget amounts to about 1,000,000 dollars.

The Institution, which has its headquarters at Washington, is directed by a President — Mr. J. C. Merriam now fills that office — and a Board of Curators composed of from 24 to 27 members, selected from among scholars, financiers and prominent politicians. The President of the United States, the President of the Senate, the Speaker of the Chamber of

Representatives, the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution and the President of the National Academy of Sciences are *ex-officio* members.

According to the founder's deed of trust, its aims are :

1. To promote original research.
2. To discover exceptional man in every department of study whenever and wherever found inside or outside of schools, and enable them to make the work for which they specially designed their lifework.
3. To increase facilities for higher education.
4. To increase the efficiency of the universities and other institutions of learning throughout the country by utilising and adding to their existing facilities and aiding teachers in the various institutions for experimental and other work, in these institutions, as far as advisable.
5. To enable such students as may find Washington the best point for their special studies to enjoy the advantages of the museums, libraries, laboratories, observatory, meteorological, piscicultural, and forestry schools and kindred institutions of the several departments of the Government.
6. To ensure the publication and distribution of the results of scientific investigation, a field considered highly important. — (The founder's deed of trust, signed : " Andrew Carnegie, 28 I. 1902 ".)

Work of the Department of Historical Research, Carnegie Institution of Washington.

Dr. Waldo Leland has given the following information :

This department was established in 1903. It has a staff consisting of a director (Dr. J. F. Jameson) and five investigators, one secretary, one editorial secretary, one stenographer, and a varying number of copists and clerical assistants.

Its work consists of editing the *American Historical Review*, which is the official organ of the American Historical Association, and in research in American history. The principal tasks which have been undertaken by the department are as follows :

(a) Investigations of archives.

Preparation of a guide to the archives of the Government of the United States.

Preparation of more detailed lists and information respecting certain sections of the Governmental archives.

Preparation of guides to materials relating to American history in foreign archives (Great Britain, Spain, France, Netherlands, Russia, Scandinavian countries, Switzerland, Austria, Germany, Cuba, Mexico, West Indies).

(b) Editing of documents.

Treaties between European countries bearing on the history of the North American continent.

Debates in the British Parliament relating to North American affairs (1774-1789).

Letters from delegates to the Continental Congress relating to the proceedings of the Congress.

Despatches of the British Ministers to the United States.

(c) Preparation of an historical atlas of the United States, and other work.

This department acts as a centre in Washington of the historical interests of the country, maintains international relations, carries on a very wide correspondence, endeavours to promote the interests of history, especially in working for an adequate provision for the housing

and maintenance of the national archives (at present without a central depository), provides offices for the secretariat of the American Historical Association, and assists investigators in their work in Washington and abroad, etc.

C. The Carnegie Hero Fund Commission, 1904.

D. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1905.

A letter of Mr. Carnegie, dated April 16th, 1905, reads as follows :

“ Gentlemen,

“ I have reached the conclusion that the least rewarded of all the professions is that of the teacher in our higher educational institutions... Able men hesitate to adopt teaching as a career, and many old professors whose places should be occupied by younger men cannot be retired. I have therefore transferred to you and your successors, as Trustees, 10,000,000.00 dollars..., the revenue from which is to provide retiring pensions for the teachers of universities, colleges, and technical schools in our country, Canada and Newfoundland, under such conditions as you may adopt from time to time... without regard to race, sex, creed or color...”

(The universities supported by the States and the sectarian institutions were excluded for reasons expressed in the letter.)

The letter ends :

“ I hope this fund may do much for the cause of higher education and to remove a source of deep and constant anxiety to the poorest-paid and yet one of the highest of all professions.”

Mr. Carnegie showed great foresight in allowing his Trustees to modify, or under certain circumstances to change completely, the methods of employing the endowment. The Trustees of the Foundation were led, after several years, to institute a pension system widely different from that which they first contemplated. Mr. Carnegie took the keenest interest in the process and approved the modifications of the original plan. He did everything possible to help higher education and maintain the position of a teacher. The Trustees had to frame definite rules, they decided to extend the benefits to institutions which deserved to be placed on a level with colleges or universities, and made regulations for the provision of pensions to professors in these institutions. These are known as “ Associated Institutions ”. The rules adopted for their pensions were based upon length of service and age. But the Trustees soon exercised the right to make such changes as experience indicated, and in 1908 extended the privileges of the Foundation to widows of teachers, and to instructors as well as to professors, and in 1909 eliminated the pension granted on the basis of service alone.

After careful study of the position of the State universities, several of which had submitted applications, Mr. Carnegie offered (in 1908) five million dollars additional endowment to enable the Trustees to enlarge the number of institutions. Some applications made by State universities have been favourably received. Over 70 institutions of higher learning have been admitted to the list of “ Associated Institutions ”. In the first thirteen years of its existence, the Foundation has granted 469 retiring allowances and 151 widow's pensions in the Associated Institutions, and 135 allowances and 43 widow's pensions in 87 other institutions, at a total cost of 6,260,500.16 dollars.

After making these payments, the Trustees came to the conclusion that the system was faulty in several respects, and reconsidered the question.

The reports of the Foundation and the material collected at its office probably constitute the most complete statement in existence concerning *the question of allowances and pensions*. In addition, the Trustees sought the advice and aid of expert actuaries, statisticians and economists. They laid down the following principles :

“ The function of a pension system is to secure to the individual who participates in it, protection against the risk of dependence due to old age or to disability.

“ The obligation to secure this protection for himself and for his family rests first upon the individual. This is one of the primary obligations of the existing social order. Society has done its best for the individual when it provides the machinery by which he may obtain this protection at a cost within his reasonable ability to pay. The obligation of the employer to co-operate in sustaining a pension system is primarily a financial one and in the second place a moral one.

“ A pension system designed for any group of industrial or vocational workers should rest upon the co-operation of employee and employer.

“ Teachers' pensions should amount to a fair proportion of the active pay.

“ A pension system conducted upon the actuarial basis of setting aside, year by year, the necessary reserve is the only pension system whose cost can be accurately estimated in advance.”

According to the seventh Report of the President and Treasurer, the present number of allowances paid out amounts to 649, thirty-three more than the previous year, and the total amount paid during the year exceeds a million dollars. The number of allowances paid to persons connected with institutions not figuring on the list of “ Associated Institutions ” is 100, and they amount to 113,000 dollars. The total cost of all pensions and allowances amounts to-day to 10 million dollars. The following institutions have received more than 500,000 dollars: Columbia, 592,636 ; Harvard, 787,897 ; Yale, 677,518. Cornell, Amherst, Johns Hopkins, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Princeton, the Stevens Institute of Technology, the Universities of California, Michigan, Minnesota and Wisconsin have received very large donations each exceeding 100,000 dollars (see *Bulletin of the Education Bureau*).

E. Carnegie Foundation for International Peace.

This institution was established in 1910. It has a European Centre, with headquarters at Paris, 24, rue Pierre-Curie. Very interesting information concerning this European Centre is contained in a small volume published by M. J. Prudhommeaux, who was for a time the Assistant Director; the book contains a fine appreciation of Mr. Andrew Carnegie's personality.

F. Carnegie Corporation of New York.

This corporation was founded in 1911 “ for the purpose of receiving and maintaining a fund or funds and applying the income thereof to promote the advancement and diffusion of knowledge and understanding among the people of the United States, by aiding technical schools, institutions of higher learning, libraries, scientific research, hero funds, and useful publications ”.

In 1917, the Corporation was empowered by an amendment of its charter to hold and administer funds for use in Canada or the British Colonies, for the same purpose as those to which it is authorised to apply its funds in the United States.

The Carnegie Corporation of New York, the final and largest of the endowments, is the logical result of the theory which Mr. Carnegie expounded in his Essay, published in 1889 (*American Review*), under the title : "The Gospel of Health" ; this theory is that all surplus of wealth should be disposed of during its possessor's lifetime. After the distribution of more than two hundred million dollars¹ to many causes, Mr. Carnegie conveyed to this Corporation 125,000,000 dollars par value, in bonds of the highest security.

The institutions which we have already mentioned were founded by Mr. Carnegie for a definite purpose, but the "Carnegie Corporation" at New York was established to constitute, in the words of its founder, "a permanent reservoir of social energy".

Mr. Carnegie intended that this foundation should afford assistance to any cause or activity which the Trustees considered, or might at any time consider, likely to encourage science and knowledge and to render them accessible to the people.

These provisions have already made it possible to grant funds to various libraries, to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Learning, to the Carnegie Institution at Washington, to the Carnegie Institute at Pittsburg, to the National Research Council, to various institutions for purposes of medical education, etc.

It should also be pointed out that Mr. Carnegie devoted part of his fortune to works intended to benefit *countries other than the United States of America*, as well as to other works of *international interest*.

G. The Carnegie United Kindgom Trust.

The income of the Trust "shall be employed for the improvement of the well-being of the masses of the people of Great Britain and Ireland by such means as are embraced within the meaning of the word 'charitable'".

H. The Carnegie Trust for the Universities of Scotland

Reminds us of its founder's Scotch extraction and testifies to his unfailing interest in the development of higher intellectual culture.

I. The Simplified Spelling Board,

Founded in 1906, is intended to hasten the "process of rational orthografic change".

The American Philological Association in 1875 started the present movement to improve the English spelling, resulting in the formation of the Spelling Reform Association, and joined with the Philological Society (London).

A plan was proposed to Mr. Carnegie, who approved it in 1906, and assured the material support. The membership was representative of the American Philological Association, the (British) Philological Society, the Spelling Reform Association, the National Education Association, the American Association for the Advancement of Learning, the Modern Language Association of America, and other learned societies, and included the editors of the *Century*, *Oxford*, the *Standard*, and Webster's Dictionaries, eminent philologists, educators, scientists, men of letters, and men of affairs.

The following important results were soon obtained : 461 universities, colleges, and normal schools, with 27,000 teachers and 330,000 students, now either use simplified spelling in their official publications and correspondence, or permit students to use it in written work.

Campaigns have been carried out in state schools, among journalists and editors of magazines, and a "Handbook of Simplified Spelling" has been distributed. During the war, the

¹ The figure given in the French edition of this brochure, owing to a misprint 2,000,000 dollars, should read 200,000,000 dollars.

board considerably reduced its activity, but it will resume its work as soon as conditions are more favourable.

The board trusts that the great work which a rational simplification of English spelling can do, not only in the more speedy Americanisation of the foreign population, but also in rendering English available as a means of international communication, will make a forcible appeal to all those who cherish these patriotic aims, and will make it possible to continue auspiciously and whole-heartedly the work inaugurated by Mr. Carnegie.

In this brief survey of the support generously and liberally granted by Mr. Carnegie to intellectual and humanitarian work, mention must also be made of the following institutions :

- J. *The Church Peace Union,*
- K. *The Palace of Peace at The Hague,*
- L. *The Centrale American Union Building,*
- M. *The Pan-American Building,*
- N. *The Engineering Building.*
- O. *Library Buildings, gifts of organs to churches, erection of colleges, etc.*

Over 1,500 college buildings were erected, or their erection promised, by Mr. Carnegie, at a cost of 30,000,000 dollars.

III.

ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION.

At the request of the American citizen, John Davison Rockefeller (born in 1839), Senator Gullinger submitted to the Senate a Bill for the establishment of the Rockefeller Foundation.

This foundation was established in conformity with the laws of the State of New York, on May 14th, 1913, for the purpose of "receiving and maintaining a fund or funds and applying the income and principal thereof to promote the well-being of mankind throughout the world."

"It shall be the purpose of the said Corporation to use as means to that end research, publication, the establishment and maintenance of charitable, benevolent, religious, missionary, and public educational activities, agencies, and institutions, and the aid of any such activities, agencies, and institutions already established and any other means and agencies which from time to time shall seem expedient to its members or trustees." — (Charter approved on May 14th, 1913).

Mr. J. D. Rockefeller had already made generous donations; in 1892, he had founded the *University of Chicago*, to which, before creating his Foundation, he had already given 25,000,000 dollars. He had given 43,000,000 dollars to an organisation called the "General Education Board", to which Congress granted a Charter in 1903; in 1901, he founded the *Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research* in New York. The object of this Institute is to carry on or encourage research work in the sciences and arts of hygiene, medicine and surgery for the protection of public health and the development of medical treatment. Mr. S. Flexner is at present the Director of research work and laboratories, Mr. R. Cole of the hospital, and Mr. Th. Smith is in charge of the department of animal pathology. Mr. Rockefeller has given large sums to the Rush Medical College in Chicago, to the Johns Hopkins Hospital in Baltimore, the Barnard College in New York, and to the Society of Baptist Missions. In 1909, he gave a million dollars for the creation of a medical commission of enquiry into the *hook worm disease*.

The Rockefeller Foundation tends more and more to concentrate its efforts upon medical education and public health.

The Foundation and its various committees take part in the world movements for the prevention of sickness and the betterment of sanitary conditions.

The numerous activities of the Foundation are carried on by the Foundation itself, but to a greater degree by its various services, which are :

- A. The International Health Board.
- B. The China Medical Board.
- C. The Division of Medical Education.

A. The report for 1921 shows that the *International Health Board* has contributed to the foundation of national sanitary services, including new Ministries of Health, in 63 States and countries throughout the world. Among its most important duties are :

International co-operation in the campaign against yellow fever and malaria. Enquiry into the hookworm disease. Development of schools of hygiene and of sanitary work in various districts. The improvement of public health laboratories. The establishment of a public sanitary service of male nurses in Brazil. Work in Czechoslovakia. Campaign against tuberculosis in France (1917).

B. In 1914, the Rockefeller Foundation established the *China Medical Board* for the purpose of encouraging the advancement of medicine and hygiene in China by means of schools of medicine, hospitals and schools for women nurses. In 1919, it organised the Medical College for the University of Pekin, a school for women nurses and a school for preliminary medical studies. The College is intended to indicate the lines on which Chinese medical education can best adapt itself to local conditions. If the hopes of its founders are realised, it will train a select group of medical instructors, scholars, public health officials and a large number of capable doctors and surgeons.

The China Medical Board assists numerous hospitals and schools of medicine. The report for 1921 contains the statement that "it is evident that medicine has made real progress in China during the last ten years".

C. The *Division of Medical Education*, established in 1919 by the Foundation, supervises medical education in the Far East. It works for the development of medical centres in London, and, when necessary, affords assistance to schools of medicine in Central Europe and Canada.

Among the schools of medicine which have received specially large grants are the University of Washington (\$2,345,000), Johns Hopkins (more than \$2,200,000), Chicago University (\$2,000,000), the School of Medicine at Yale (\$1,583,000), Vassar College (\$100,000 for new buildings and 3,000 volumes of Greek and Latin texts).

The Rockefeller Foundation has also contributed large sums of money to various States in the United States, to enable them to study every aspect of public education. According to information supplied by Mr. Duffield, the State of Maryland, for instance, has, with the help of a large grant, been able to reorganise its whole educational system.

In December 1920, Mr. Rockefeller gave more than \$115,000,000 to the "General Education Board"; at the close of the financial period 1921, that Board had contributed more than \$32,000,000 in the form of donations to various colleges. It acts on the principle of making its donations depend on contributions from other donors.

Lastly, a gift of \$1,000,000 should be mentioned, which was recently made to the "Teachers' College" at Columbia University, to enable the latter to develop its work for the benefit of

foreign students and to investigate the scholastic problems in the countries of origin of those students. Thanks to this gift, the College of the "International Institute of Teachers" was organised, under the direction of Professor Paul Monroe.

It is estimated that the total amount of donations made by Mr. Rockefeller already exceeds \$500,000,000.

All these gifts are made "free of all restrictions", as they were intended to serve the principal aims of the various corporations; the trustees have the right to dispose of the capital as well as of the revenue. In this way it will be possible to appropriate the funds to the needs of future generations, whatever form these needs may take.

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United States of America

The Principal Academies and Learned Societies

by

Henri REVERDIN

Professor at the University of Geneva

Expert of the Committee

NOTE

The sole object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing these reports is to draw attention to the questions of organisation and intellectual co-operation which arise in relation to each of the subjects dealt with. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but merely to draw the reader's attention to them and to provide an opening for fresh suggestions.

PRINCIPAL ACADEMIES AND LEARNED SOCIETIES IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

By HENRI REVERDIN

Principal Academies and Learned Societies.

The American member of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, Dr. R. A. Millikan, of the California Institute of Technology, has communicated to us the following information :

There are only four important general scientific organisations in the country :

The National Academy of Sciences, with headquarters at Washington, D.C. ; with the National Research Council as a sub-body ;

The American Association for the Advancement of Science, whose headquarters are at Washington ;

The American Philosophical Society, whose headquarters are at Washington ;

The American Academy of Arts and Sciences, whose headquarters are at Boston.

The present report will deal only with these organisations.

I. The American Philosophical Society held at Philadelphia for promoting Useful Knowledge.

This Society, the oldest of the great learned societies of the United States, owed its origin to Benjamin Franklin's "Junto", founded in 1727. The Junto was a local society of twelve "ingenious" men, friends of Dr. Franklin, who met for mutual improvement.

In 1743, Dr. Franklin issued his proposals for promoting useful knowledge and suggested that the organisation of the American Philosophical Society should be composed of members from all the American colonies and the islands beyond the sea (West Indies). This was accordingly done in 1743, with Thomas Hopkinson as President and Benjamin Franklin as Secretary. In the meanwhile, the Junto continued its existence and in 1766 adopted new laws broadening the scope of the club into a society and changing its name to "The American Society for promoting and propagating Useful Knowledge held at Philadelphia". On January 2nd, 1769, the two societies then united and fused and the name changed into that of "The American Philosophical Society held at Philadelphia for promoting Useful Knowledge" and elected Benjamin Franklin as its President.

Under the influence of Franklin, and as its title suggests, the aim of this Society is to make science of use to mankind. As Mr. Caullery stated in the useful book which we quoted when dealing with the Universities, the word "philosophy" is used in the classical English sense and applied to all the sciences as a whole. The original programme included a long series of possible applications and all experiments of a philosophic nature likely to throw light on the nature of things or to increase the power of man over matter or to add to the comforts or pleasures of life.

The organisation of the Society is modelled on that of the Royal Society in London. The annual meeting is attended by a large number of members resident in the United States.

In addition to communications submitted by individual members, some important subject, which is placed upon the agenda and is prepared beforehand by several members appointed for that purpose, is discussed at every meeting.

To-day the Society has a total membership of 471 members, of which 402 are American members and 69 foreign members. It is located in its own building on Independence Square, Philadelphia, which it has occupied since 1789. Its President to-day is William B. Scott. It meets on the first Friday of every month from November to March and holds a general meeting in April.

With regard to the number of members, at present only fifteen Americans may be elected each year (enough to fill the average number of vacancies due to death). The number of foreigners who may be elected has been reduced to 50. Among the latter we may mention such eminent men and women as Lord Balfour, Madame Curie, Sir Francis Darwin, Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, Marshal Joffre and M. Delitzsch, M. Marconi, Dr. Nansen, M. Raymond Poincaré, M. Voltera, M. de Vries, etc.

The Society publishes its Transactions in quarto since 1771 and its Proceedings in octavo since 1838. Its Historical and Literary Committee published three volumes of Transactions in 1819-1843; the "Record of the Celebration of the 200th Anniversary of the Birth of B. Franklin", in six volumes; and other miscellaneous publications.

It offers annually the Magellanic Premium, which was founded by Jean Hyacinth de Magellan of London; also, from time to time, the Henry M. Phillips prize of 2,000 dollars for the crowned essay on a designated subject in the science and philosophy of jurisprudence.

II. The American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

This Academy, the first to be founded after the Philosophical Society, was established at Boston in 1780. It occupies a handsome and extensive building which it owes to a generous legacy bequeathed by Alexander Agassiz, who for many years was its President. Its library contains about 39,000 volumes, of which the proceedings of other societies form the principal and most valued part. As its members are entitled to use books belonging to other libraries, the administrators have not considered it necessary to purchase a large number of works.

The Academy consists of Fellows, who are either citizens or residents of the United States of America, and Foreign Honorary Members.

They are arranged in three classes, according to the Arts and Sciences in which they are severally proficient, and each class is divided into four sections, namely:

Class I. — The Mathematical and Physical Sciences:

1. Mathematics and Astronomy.
2. Physics.
3. Chemistry.
4. Technology and Engineering.

Class II. — The Natural and Physiological Sciences:

1. Geology, Mineralogy, and Physics of the Globe.
2. Botany.
3. Zoology and Physiology.
4. Medicine and Surgery.

Class III. — The Moral and Political Sciences:

1. Theology, Philosophy, and Jurisprudence.
2. Philology and Archeology.
3. Political Economy and History.
4. Literature and Fine Arts.

According to the figures supplied by the Assistant Librarian, Madamie M. F. Ball, for the purpose of the enquiry, the membership during the last ten years was as follows :

	<i>Members.</i>	<i>Foreign Honorary Members.</i>
1913	366	54
1914	417	60
1915	471	68
1916	485	64
1917	498	64
1918	526	66
1919	528	65
1920	529	66
1921	567	69
1922	579	71
1923	572	64

It will be seen that, between 1913 and 1923, the number of American members has steadily increased.

According to the revised Statutes of 1922 there must be not more than 600 Fellows, of whom not more than 400 shall be residents of Massachusetts, nor shall there be more than 210 in any one class. The number of Foreign Honorary Members shall not exceed 75. They shall be chosen from among the citizens of foreign countries most eminent for their discoveries and attainments in any of the classes above enumerated. There shall not be more than 25 in any one class.

Publications. — The Academy publishes :

Memoirs (begun in 1785), 58 volumes.

Proceedings (begun in 1846).

It meets at Boston eight times a year, between October and May. Mr. George F. Moore is the President.

The following figures show its expenditure during the last ten years :

	<i>Dollars.</i>			
1913-1914	14,077.01	of which 1,825.00 was spent for research.		
1914-1915	10,283.31	»	1,253.00	»
1915-1916	14,570.74	»	2,753.50	»
1916-1917	13,951.70	»	3,796.88	»
1917-1918	15,191.08	»	2,100.00	»
1918-1919	15,019.63	»	1,300.00	»
1919-1920	14,076.07	»	4,150.00	»
1920-1921	21,527.13	»	5,169.35	»
1921-1922	19,122.80	»	4,175.00	»

Madame Ball writes that there are no difficulties in the way of the development of the Society other than that of making a careful selection of new members.

The list of foreign associations with which exchanges are effected includes the principal learned societies throughout the world, and is therefore far too long to be reproduced.

The Academy is represented on the International Association of Academies.

The American Philosophical Society and the American Academy of Arts and Sciences both form part of the American Council of Learned Societies, which, according to the statement made by Dr. Waldo G. Leland, is a grouping of the twelve leading societies devoted to humanities and letters. It was formed in 1919 for the purpose of organising the American participation in the International Union of Academies (U. A. I.), and does not do much more than to hold a meeting once a year for the transaction of business.

III. The American Association for the Advancement of Science.

This Association was formed in 1848 as an outgrowth of the American Association of Geologists and Naturalists. It was incorporated in 1874. Through its meetings and through its publications, it proposes intercourse and co-operation and the feeling of fellowship among scientists and those interested in the advance of science and education. North America and South America are its special geographical fields but members may be citizens of any country.

The Association's object is "to advance science in the new world by all possible means". It has its offices in the building of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington.

From the very detailed reply sent by Mr. Burton E. Livingston, the permanent Secretary of the Association, we quote the following information :

There are three classes of members : sustaining members, who pay 1,000 dollars and no later dues ; life members, who pay 100 dollars and no later dues ; and annual members, who pay 5 dollars each year. The entrance fee is 5 dollars. The Association has fifteen sections as follows :

	Members
Section A (Mathematics)	686
» B (Physics)	1,148
» C (Chemistry)	1,685
» D (Astronomy)	362
» E (Geology and Geography)	1,098
» F (Zoological Sciences)	1,648
» G (Botanical Sciences)	1,639
» H (Anthropology)	331
» I (Psychology)	553
» K (Social and Economic Sciences)	452
» L (Historical and Philological Sciences)	151
» M (Engineering)	1,562
» N (Medical Sciences)	2,114
» O (Agriculture)	774
» P (Education)	599

Total number : 11,692.

The Association publishes a preliminary announcement of each of its meetings and a general programme of each meeting. It publishes a volume of summarised proceedings every four years, the last one having appeared in the summer of 1921. The official journal of the Association is the weekly *Science*, and every member receives this journal. If a member so desires, however, he may receive, instead of *Science*, the *Scientific Monthly*. Sample copies of *Science* and the *Scientific Monthly* are being sent ; also a booklet of information about the Association, a preliminary announcement of the last annual meeting and a copy of the programme of the last annual meeting. Current announcements and reports of the Association are published from time to time in *Science*.

In 1848, there were roughly 500 members, and this figure was maintained until 1870. Between 1895 and 1900 there were 2,000 ; after that date, membership increased regularly and rapidly until the outbreak of the war, as shown in a diagram.

The permanent Secretary also informs us that during the war the number of members decreased by about 2,000. During 1917, there were 13,000 members and to-day there are 11,692 ; he states that the progress made by the Association is highly satisfactory.

The following are its principal activities :

1. To obtain in the field of science the co-operation of all scientists and of all friends of science.
2. To investigate how to direct research in order to make sciences progress as much as possible.

As far as national and international co-operation is concerned, a large number of scientific societies are associated or affiliated to the Association, and the latter has two subdivisions: the South-West Subdivision (including the members living in Arizona, New Mexico, Sonora, Chihuahua and that part of Texas which is situated to the west of the Pecos) and the Pacific Subdivision (including the members living in Alaska, Columbia, Jamaica, the State of Washington, Oregon, California, Idaho, Nevada, Utah, Mexico — with the exception of Sonora and Chihuahua — the islands of Hawai, the Philippines and other islands of the Pacific).

Each subdivision has a list of affiliated societies. The Association co-operates with the National Research Council and with all the scientific associations of America in all cases where such co-operation is necessary and practicable. The Association receives the publications of a great number of foreign learned societies.

The Association does not belong to any international organisation. It adheres to several American federations.

The annual meetings of the Association form, so to speak, national congresses for the advancement of science. As has been said, a meeting takes place every year. The Association has often participated in international congresses of savants or scientists when these congresses have been held in the United States. It appoints delegates regularly to represent it at the annual meetings of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. It is planning a special meeting of its two subdivisions, to be held at Los Angeles from September 17th to 19th, 1923.

IV. The National Academy of Sciences and the National Research Council.

The Charter of the National Academy of Sciences, passed by Congress and approved by President Lincoln in 1863, provides that "the Academy shall, whenever called upon by any department of the Government, investigate, examine, experiment, and report upon any subject of science or art".

Under this provision, the Academy has acted since the time of its establishment as an official adviser of the Government on a wide variety of questions. The Academy has its seat at Washington.

At the time of its foundation during the Civil War, as the earlier records of the Academy indicate, its committees and its members dealt actively with military and naval problems of precisely the same type as those which insistently pressed for solution during the recent war. It was thus a natural step on the part of the Academy to offer its services to the President at a time, in April 1916, when our relations with Germany were already tense and for the President to accept the offer and request the Academy to organise the scientific and technical resources of the country in the broadest and most effective manner to accomplish the objects in view.

This request from the President was accepted by the Academy and, fortified by its Charter, it took steps which soon led to the establishment of the National Research Council, without seeking additional authority.

However, as the work of the Research Council progressed, it became evident that a definite formulation of its objects by the President, and an expression of his desire that it be perpetuated by the Academy and permanently assured of the co-operation of the various departments of the Government, would serve a useful purpose.

President W. Wilson issued, on May 11th, 1918, an executive Order in which we read: "The National Academy of Sciences is requested to perpetuate the National Research Council, the duties of which shall be as follows: in general to stimulate research in the mathematical, physical and biological sciences and in the application of these sciences to engineering, agriculture, medicine, and other useful arts, with the object of increasing knowledge, of strengthening the national defence, and of contributing in other ways to the public welfare".

Since the war the Research Council has been reorganised and, in accordance with the terms

of this Executive Order, has for its essential purpose the promotion of scientific research and of the application and dissemination of scientific knowledge for the benefit of the national strength and well-being.

Although the National Research Councils in England, Canada, Australia, Japan, Italy, etc., are under the control of the Governments of those countries and receive grants from them, the American Council, since the conclusion of peace, is entirely supported from other than governmental sources and controlled by its own representatively selected membership and democratically chosen officers. The Council, however, expects to maintain close co-operation with Government scientific bureaux and their activities.

In an article entitled "A National Focus of Science and Research", its honorary President, Mr. George Ellery Hale, has shown what the Council has already accomplished and what may be expected from it in the future.

Under the democratic régime adopted since the Armistice, the Council consists of the representatives of fifty-six scientific and technical societies, together with the representatives of the Government members at large. Dr. Vernon Kellogg, the permanent Secretary of the National Research Council, has been good enough to supply us with a list of "affiliated" societies.

In addition to the great Academies and the Philosophical Society mentioned in this report, there are societies representing the following sciences :

Education, physics, mechanics, chemistry, geology and geography, medicine, biology and agriculture, anthropology and psychology, at present 73 societies in all.

"With regard to its site and premises, I may say", writes Dr. Vernon Kellogg, "that we are at present using a leased building in Washington (1,701 Massachusetts Avenue), but have a large concrete and marble building in course of erection which is to be occupied by the National Research Council and the National Academy of Sciences jointly.

"The National Research Council does not possess laboratories or museums of its own and has only a library of particular references and source volumes. It has, of course, access to the library of the National Academy of Sciences and to the various important scientific libraries in Washington.

"With regard to the financial status of the Council, I may state briefly that the Council has been pledged by the Carnegie Corporation a fund of five million dollars, which is to serve partly for the erection of the new building, the rest to be held intact as an endowment for the Council. In addition to this major gift for endowment, the Council has had gifts from various sources for the support of special scientific investigations and work of about two and a-half million dollars. More than half of this amount has been given to the Council for the maintenance of research fellowships in physics, chemistry, medicine and the biological sciences.

"The Council is a member of the International Research Council, and several of its various divisions function as the American sections of the various International Unions affiliated with the International Research Council. Such unions are the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry, International Union of Pure and Applied Physics, International Geodetic and Geophysical Union, International Union of Scientific Radio-telegraphy, International Mathematical Union and the International Astronomical Union. It sends delegates to all the meetings of the International Research Council and of its affiliated International Unions."

Dr. Kellogg ends his letter : "We are distinctly interested in international phases of scientific work and promotion and shall be glad to maintain a live interest in the activities of the League of Nations Committee on Intellectual Co-operation".

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO THE
CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series

INTELLECTUAL LIFE

in the

VARIOUS COUNTRIES

FRANCE

PRESERVATION AND DISSEMINATION OF ARTISTIC TASTE
REPORT

By Julien LUCHAIRE

Honorary Professor at the University of Grenoble,
Inspector-General of Public Education in France, Expert to the Committee.

Accompanied by a letter from M. Émile MALE

Professor of the History of Art at the University of Paris

NOTE

The object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing this series of pamphlets is to call attention to the problems of organisation and intellectual assistance to which each subject gives rise. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but desires rather to bring them to the notice of the public and to provide an opportunity for further suggestions.

THE PRESERVATION AND DISSEMINATION OF ARTISTIC TASTE

REPORT

By **M. Julien LUCHAIRE**

HONORARY PROFESSOR AT THE UNIVERSITY OF GRENOBLE, INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN FRANCE
EXPERT TO THE COMMITTEE

ACCOMPANIED BY A LETTER FROM **M. EMILE MALE**

PROFESSOR OF THE HISTORY OF ART IN THE UNIVERSITY OF PARIS

Of all activities of the mind, art is probably the most pacific, both in principle and in fact. Education may have war for its goal, science may be its servant; no civilised nation will henceforward be in a position to make war without some training of the public mind by education, without complicated and onerous scientific preparation.

Art, on the other hand, is not necessary to war. War is particularly inimical to art, though it has often supplied it with subject; but art has an infinity of subjects, and the creation of art requires before anything else a state of society sufficiently prosperous to favour contemplation.

But although art is not necessary to war, it has at times been made war's servant. Literature more especially, but the plastic arts as well, are often employed to provoke hatred between men. A short poem, so beautiful that it has stamped itself upon the memory of a people, may be a most formidable call to arms. Certain war hymns have been of immense importance in the history of some races, though these, it is true, were primitive and warlike peoples. Among the civilised nations, there has grown up, since the 19th century, a theory that the artistic output of each people is the hall-mark of its genius, one might even say its portrait—a theory which is true in itself, but the conclusions of which have been carried too far. Each nation has tended more or less consciously to make art a "national concern"; men have agreed to consider those works which bear the strongest imprint of the national character as surpassing all others in beauty; the outlooks of the various national schools have been exaggerated by the comparison of one school with another. A futile rivalry has been created, and fundamental antitheses, showing but shadowy differences, have been set up. With the aid of material interests, barriers have been erected around the artistic production of each country; an attempt has even been made to turn art into yet another bastion superimposed upon the existing military, customs and other ramparts.

This policy is a mixture of legitimate precautions and erroneous conceptions, which are no less injurious to each nation in particular than to mankind in general. It must not be forgotten that art, which attracts by its beauty, which is essentially impartial in its nature and which, after all, prefers to treat subjects of a profound and universal character is, in the hands of every nation, one of the most potent instruments for winning the appreciation and affection of others. Art is in every age the loftiest expression of the feelings and ideals, the sufferings, hopes and

imaginations of all men, of the common moral fund of humanity. It is one of the best means of communication between men, inasmuch as, by its varieties of form, it provokes curiosity and so makes men look for those essential things in which they resemble one another and for that which their destinies hold in common, forgetful of the material needs for whose satisfaction their appetites are constantly at war.

Every care must, then, be taken to ensure that the power of artistic creation and enjoyment does not atrophy in the restless commotion of modern life and the predominance of economic activities, but is developed, perfected and exalted in every country. It is clear that in many countries, more especially those which have been recently formed by emigration to new lands, an enthusiasm for art is still far too uncommon. In these countries, in contrast with what frequently occurs among old but imperfectly civilised races, in which a taste for art precedes education, we may observe a strong intellectual movement, totally lacking in artistic activity. It follows in almost every case that their civilisation and even their science are conspicuously materialistic in character, and are too exclusively directed towards obtaining practical results. The reason is that, although art takes for its source of inspiration the whole of nature, and for its field of action man's sensibility, and I may even say his sensuality, art always plays upon the finest chords of the soul; it wraps itself in an atmosphere of idealism. It is at least certain that it enlarges and purifies intellectual life.

For this reason again, and also because of the immense benefits which may be expected from a work of international reconciliation, it would seem that the *dissemination of the artistic sense is one of the problems which should be included in the programme of the League of Nations Committee on Intellectual Co-operation*. Whilst it is desirable that some steps should be taken to preserve and foster art in those nations which are the best endowed in this respect and are the guardians of the world's artistic faculty, we must also seek means to encourage and assist the other nations to draw upon this privileged source in an increasing degree.

France indubitably belongs to the first category. Knowing it, she attaches great importance to maintaining herself in the first rank in the race for artistic production, and makes great efforts to this end. It is a matter of international concern that the work should be recognised and, if necessary, supported. There are not many nations which carry artistic refinement to its extreme limits, but those nations are beacons which mankind cannot allow to grow dim. We are not arguing that it would be advisable to create privileges and establish monopolies in this respect more than in any other. Although, in regard to material production the necessity may often arise for an international understanding on the limitation of output or consumption, there are no desirable or conceivable boundaries to art, science or education; in an ideal society all nations would occupy an equal place in the first rank, while if it were possible to imagine and to effect a specialisation or apportionment of work, its only object would be to make both supply and demand immeasurably easier and more abundant.

This is the reason, by the way, why the vast subject dealt with by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation is, of all the subjects which the League of Nations can embrace, one of those which promise the most fruitful prospect of easy realisation, and are the most naturally adapted to the ideal which is its inspiration.

As regards France, we may first point out that the post-War economic crisis has not appreciably affected the volume of artistic production, nor, generally speaking, the apparent interest taken in it by the public. Pictures, prints, drawings and sculptures are still exhibited in large numbers at the annual Paris exhibitions. The artists themselves, however, have felt the embarrassment of the times—at any rate the greater number of them, those who, not yet having won fame, are obliged to struggle with conditions of life which are much harder than before the War. The comment is sometimes made that there are too many mediocre artists, and that their discouragement cannot arouse regret. This is a mistaken view; if a country is to have an assured and sufficient supply of good artists—I do not refer to geniuses, for these are always exceptions—they must have a large artistic society as a forcing ground, in which there must necessarily be many mediocrities. *The existence of a great centre of art like Paris cannot be maintained unless thousands of humble artists are ensured the means of subsistence. Doubtless it is much the same*

in other centres of a like kind. It will be recognised that, in this direction, the enquiry recommended by the Assembly of the League of Nations should be thorough and exhaustive (1).

It is obvious, on the other hand, that the economic crisis is not without its effects on the quality of artistic production. The difficulty of living upon slender means forces artists to produce more rapidly and less carefully, and to degrade their work to the taste of the wider public. We have been warned from many quarters of the danger of a decline in French artistic activity unless present economic conditions improve. The danger is especially great because, as we have already observed, the demand is still large, so that pressure is put upon artists to debase their art.

We have been told that this danger is particularly noticeable in literature. In spite of the increase in selling prices, printed works are now published in France in numbers unheard of before the War. In most cases, these "best-sellers" appeal to persons of mediocre intelligence and indolent minds. It is generally recognised that works of deep artistic purpose have a slow sale. Owing to the increased expense of publication only large editions are profitable; publishers hesitate to publish works which it is anticipated will have only a small circulation. Complaints are heard on every side; artists are unable to make themselves known to the public simply because they have too much respect for their art.

There have been, only this year, heated discussions in France as to the methods now employed by many publishers to find a sale for their productions by means of sensational advertisements and, more especially, public competitions. Up to a short time ago, French artistic circles had remained impervious to certain vulgar methods. Many, not without reason, fear lest refinement may, in this manner, evaporate and spontaneous criticism by the public disappear. It is certain that, if publicity strangles criticism, which has for long displayed great competence and enjoyed immense authority in France, the general value of artistic production in our country is in danger of being seriously impaired.

It would appear that in France, as throughout almost the whole civilised world, the desire for mere distraction, which is very frequently blended with a desire for artistic enjoyment, oppresses with an ever-increasing weight the entire production in this field. It is one of the forms of the moral effect of the War which has so often been commented upon—the taste for pleasure. We may find evidence of this in the astonishing success of the theatre, one of the forms of literature in which amusement plays the largest part. Whilst in 1900, during the Paris Universal Exhibition, when the theatres were particularly full, the royalties collected by the Society of Dramatic Authors reached 4 million francs, the receipts in 1922 were about 21 million francs. After allowance has been made for a depreciation of about 300 % in the franc and for the fact that the Society has in the meantime improved its methods of collection, there is still an immense difference, which must be ascribed to the increasing taste of the public for the theatre as an amusement. We might point out that, at the same time, the cinematograph industry has advanced by leaps and bounds, and the public spends large sums on this novel diversion; yet the theatre has in no way suffered from it. It must be remembered that the earnings of music-halls, revues, ballets and wordless plays, farcical sketches, pantomimes, etc., and other works of mediocre artistic worth form a very considerable part of the total theatrical receipts.

The development of the cinematograph is a factor which cannot be neglected in any general appreciation of a nation's artistic life. The opinion is universally held that the cinematograph industry in France, although it has had some noteworthy successes, does not, in comparison with the same industry in other countries, occupy the pre-eminent place held by the French theatre. In France, however, as in most other countries, the cinematograph has become the favourite form of art of the masses. In the cinema, the people learn to appreciate forms, movements, attitudes, stage settings and dramatic composition, together with the representation of the emotions. The cinema, which has conquered the towns, has not yet penetrated into the country. There

(1) Cf. Report of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation on the economic situation of musicians in various countries, by M. William Martin, representative of the International Labour Office on the Committee.

are, however, certain schemes under consideration by the Government itself, and it is expected that the new art will shortly reach this further stage.

Another new factor in the dissemination of art in France is the rapid development of wireless telephony, which about a year ago began the daily transmission of pieces of music to countless ears, many of which had rarely if ever heard good music before. There are about four hundred thousand wireless telephone sets in the country, and their number is rapidly increasing. *The astonishing development of this new industry is interesting not merely from a mechanical point of view. It should be studied in its intellectual and moral effects, and more especially in regard to its influence on the development of a musical sense among the masses.*

The foregoing brief remarks show that a country like France, with a long-standing artistic tradition, is, at the present moment, in a very favourable position for a wide expansion of its artistic activity, but is, at the same time, confronted with very difficult problems. These problems may be divided into two groups: (1) How are the highest forms of artistic creation to be fostered? (2) How are the opportunities of the masses to obtain artistic enjoyment to be extended, and by what rules should they be governed?

Many countries are faced with these problems, but, in view of the part played by France in the world of art, it is specially interesting to watch the method adopted in that country for finding a solution of them.

Many measures, some economic, others legal, have been proposed.

Those mainly concerned, that is to say, the artists, ask for measures of protection. The Law of May 20th, 1920, called the "*Loi du droit de suite*", marks an appreciable advance in regard to the plastic arts. It established a royalty for the benefit of artists on public sales of works of art, and thus instituted the extremely important principle of a kind of permanent copyright enjoyed by the artist in a work which has left his hands, even after it has passed into other hands by a duly contracted sale. The Law was improved upon by the French Parliament in 1922. Artists, however, have also demanded: (1) that their fees should be increased so as to correspond with the rates established by the analogous Belgian law (Law of May 11th, 1921); (2) that authors should not only be entitled to a royalty on their public sales, but also that all commercial transactions concerning works of art should be included under the Law (recommendation by the Confederation of French Intellectual Workers).

Further, artists are preoccupied with the protection of their works against debasement (which very frequently occurs) either of the originals or in reproductions. Printed no less than plastic works appear to require protection in this sense. A bill to this effect was laid before the Chamber of Deputies on February 19th, 1921. It prescribed that authors, even though a work may have been transferred in any way or manner, "shall retain a right of control over the work and reproductions thereof, and more especially the right to withdraw an authorisation given to any person concerned if the work undergoes substantial alteration, or is even merely modified or reproduced in a manner injurious to the reputation of the author." Heirs would retain this right of withdrawal for fifty years, as specified in the French law on artistic and literary copyright; moreover, it includes a noteworthy proposal which institutes a perpetual obligation to respect works of art—"upon the expiration of fifty years, proceedings at law shall be taken against any physical or legal person for the same purposes, provided that it shall be shown that the same interests are at stake as those to which the author could lay claim if he were still alive".

Another question under consideration is that of the relations between artists and publishers. Musicians, for instance, complain of the usual contracts by which the publisher acquires full and sole ownership of the work in countries adhering to the statutes of the "*Société française des auteurs et compositeurs de musique*" (French Society of Musical Composers), and the right to share in the profits accruing from performance in non-adhering countries. Composers claim that they should only be required to transfer the right to engrave, print and sell their works, without permanently transferring the right of ownership. Contracts should be drawn up on the principle that the contracting parties should share all sums accruing from the sale or hire of music, the publisher being allowed no share in the composer's performing rights (article by M. André Messager in the *Semaine professionnelle des Travailleurs intellectuels de France*, 1922).

Literary authors, again, demand that publishers should be required to give proof of editions and to suppress or at all events restrict the custom of printing works at the author's expense, which is tantamount to an undertaking on the part of the author to refund publishers' losses. The directors of newspapers and periodicals should be placed under a similar obligation, which would forbid them to accept unpaid contributions.

These proposals and others of a similar kind arouse conflicting material interests which it is, in most cases, difficult to reconcile. *As the same antagonisms are met with in every country, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will no doubt desire to carry its investigations further in this direction.* It could obtain valuable assistance from the International Bureau for Intellectual Property, set up at Berne by the Convention of 1886. Administrative circles in France, which took a very active part in drawing up the Berne Convention, and are extremely interested in all questions affecting the competence of the Bureau, would very willingly examine any proposal to improve and regularise procedure in regard to artistic and literary property throughout the world.

These material questions are, however, only one aspect of the main problem of the preservation of art, as we have defined it above. Further, the discussions now being held in France on questions of artistic property, the campaigns conducted by powerful corporations or by the body which they have recently combined to establish—the “Confédération des Travailleurs intellectuels” (the Intellectual Workers' Union)—*and the views exchanged at certain important conferences, such as the Book Congress, prove that, more or less consciously, a new formula is being sought which will correspond to a slow evolution of ideas establishing the rights of artists and the high prestige of art in modern society.* The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should, we think, associate itself with work of this kind, and, more especially, make an effort at the same time to focus the attention of enlightened circles in all countries on this point.

If we attempt to get to the bottom of things, we shall see that, after all, putting aside the problems of material interest, the *main question is to ascertain the best methods for, on the one hand, refining and, on the other hand, diffusing taste in art.* For Frenchmen, at any rate, it has been throughout the centuries and remains their constant preoccupation to preserve the subtle rule which, in each kind of production and in each age, teaches men to reject the commonplace or senseless and classifies all works of art according to their strength, sincerity, simplicity, polish and completeness.

This rule of taste, which great creative geniuses are, to a certain extent, able to disregard, is the rule which makes and preserves the great schools of art and unites the entire intellectual class of a country in a common endeavour. For this reason it is, we think, an essential condition in any collective attempt to preserve and develop art in a nation. Taste, whether an acquired or, as it sometimes is, a natural instinct, is communicable to a large number of people, even to people of small culture, at any rate in regard to simple objects and processes. The training of great artists and the education of the masses are, in this respect, one and the same thing; a public monument should be, and may be, criticised as beautiful or ugly, if not for the same reasons, at any rate with the same spontaneity, by the art critic and the man in the street. This has been the case in certain periods of history; one of the best prayers that could be offered for mankind to-day is that taste should be shared in common by many races in all quarters of the world.

We intend here to indicate only a few of the methods by which we could, in a country like France, attempt to improve taste in the cultured classes and create it in the masses.

Beyond doubt, one of the best means of forming the taste of the cultured classes is to give them as wide a knowledge as possible of the artistic masterpieces of every age. The teaching of the history of the plastic arts, after long neglect, has been greatly developed in the last thirty years. The history of art now has a place in almost all schools of art. The School of the Louvre, which is attended by the cultured public of Paris in great numbers, was instituted for this purpose. Moreover, several universities have created Chairs, and some institutes, of the history of art. Nevertheless, and in spite of the progress achieved in this field, much remains to be done; the reply to our questionnaire from M. E. Male, Professor at the University of Paris (which

we publish as an annex to the present Report), gives a fair account of the merits and imperfections of the higher teaching of the history of the plastic arts in France.

The higher teaching of the history of music is still in its infancy. In accordance with French tradition, the main branch of the teaching of the history of art in the universities used to be the teaching of the history of literature. It was a matter of course that to perfect its taste the flower of the French younger generation should have recourse to the Chairs of classical and French letters. The same tradition was maintained outside the university walls and imparted to the cultured public by the work of great literary critics—Villeman, Sainte-Beuve, Taine, Renan, Brunetière, Faguet, who form, as it were, a dynasty of professors of light and learning; French literature of to-day is still highly indebted to them, as also to the popularity of the classics, as it is likely that all the arts owe much to one another.

Nevertheless, a change took place some time ago in the methods and spirit of the higher teaching of literature. Science has ousted art. It should especially be noted that the various faculties of letters have become, in the main, schools of history. An understanding of art and the formation of taste are in their view secondary objects, and, it must be confessed, are often neglected. In the eyes of a generation which is enamoured of accurate and earnest criticism there is good reason for this, namely, that the materials and methods employed in the art of literature are imperfectly known. The important work undertaken for some years past in the field of grammar and style will no doubt promote a revival of the criticism of the art of literature. There has already been evidence of a reaction outside the university and, to a certain degree, against it, in favour of a renaissance of the æsthetic sense in literary studies and against excessive erudition. It is probable that the schools of French letters will, at no distant date, succeed in discovering a more distinct and more equitable division of the subjects taught by them between these two main purposes, the development of historical sense and the development of taste.

What has been called in France the problem of the humanities and the problem of secondary education (which gave rise only this year to impassioned discussions in professional circles, Parliament and the Press) is but one aspect of the same problem. Some are of opinion that the reform of secondary education carried out in 1902, the main feature of which was the large place given to the study of science and to a knowledge of the modern world, had diminished the younger generation's ability to compose and write with literary distinction—or, as we might say, if we looked at the matter a little more deeply, with artistic distinction. This is not the place to enquire whether really serious harm has been done, nor whether it is really to be imputed to the reason alleged. What should be noted is that, as soon as the alarm was raised, Frenchmen universally agreed that a remedy must be found. French administrative circles instinctively felt that it was their duty not to allow the slightest deterioration of the national artistic capacity, of which a literary education is, perhaps, the main source.

The Minister concerned decided that the remedy was compulsory Latin and Greek for all pupils in secondary schools and colleges. The subject taught is, perhaps, in this connection, less important than the spirit of the teaching. Once the fundamental problem, namely, that of the development of artistic taste, has been clearly defined and solved both in higher and in secondary education, any variation of the subjects in the curriculum can entail no disadvantages.

The experiment now being made in France is at all events of interest to other nations. It is, as defined in this manner, another instance of a common problem confronting the entire civilised world. I may be permitted to suggest to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation (whose work it is to consider questions of intellectual life, as it were, from above and in their international aspects) *that it would perhaps be advisable to obtain the opinions of all the highest authorities on the following problem: What place should be given in higher and secondary education to the training and improvement of the artistic sense, and what means should be used to this end?*

The same problem regarded from the point of view of popular education presents itself in a very different light. There can here be no question of history or criticism; all that we can offer is a general series of hints which may, little by little, render an ordinary undeveloped man, who does not move in what is called an intellectual circle, responsive to beauty. The obstacles are immense. Although it cannot be said that a frontal attack has yet been made upon the

problem in primary public education in France, or even in our as yet undeveloped system of advanced education, a certain degree of progress has been achieved not only in the study of drawing and singing, but also in the attempt, in accordance with the curriculum, to make children apprehend the subjects which they are taught as far as possible by means of images, and to enliven education generally by means of form and movement. An endeavour is now being made to extend the use of magic-lantern slides and cinema films in schools (the lack of funds, however, is a serious obstacle), and this will also contribute to the education of the artistic sense, provided that proper care is taken. The study of texts of definite literary worth has a considerable place in the curriculum of primary education. Well-trained teachers would be able to obtain good results from it, but hitherto the education of teachers has been organised on lines which develop in them the power of reasoning rather than a responsive sensibility.

We need not dwell on the still faint-hearted attempts to impart popular artistic education by means of excursions, visits to museums, etc. We may conclude that, although she seems to be tending in that direction, France has not yet given the formation of popular taste an amount of attention proportionate to the extreme importance of her artistic production and the very pronounced taste for art prevalent among the cultured classes. A conclusion of this kind, however, should be supported by a more exhaustive enquiry, which would doubtless evolve some interesting suggestions.

The taste of the urban populations is, no doubt, in a certain measure formed by the use and sight of countless objects produced by the French art industries, some of which, more especially the fashion industries, have imposed French taste upon the entire world. One of the essential conditions for the maintenance of the artistic standard of these industries and for their progress, however, is the taste of the workman; care must be taken lest they sink into a rut, for in that case they would soon fall behind. Accordingly, the education of the makers of artistic objects is one of the questions which engage French opinion; here again this brief statement should be amplified by a full report, which would contain accounts of what has been suggested and attempted in this connection.

Generally speaking, the preservation and revival of taste in the art industries is a matter of capital importance in our country. We here touch upon one of the most important questions affecting the development of the national artistic capacity in all countries. A great advance would be made in the education of the human mind by the constant and regular introduction of beauty into ornaments and even into objects of everyday use, and by the general diffusion of a demand for humble and familiar beauty. Education would in this way enable us to recover an ancient instinct, for ugliness in everyday decoration and in objects of daily use is a recent growth, dating from the age of machinery. *It would not, I think, be alien to the programme of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to assist in the fight against ugliness in manufactures; what is required is some method of influencing the intelligence of the public,* and this influence might to a certain extent be obtained by a concerted effort.

Great efforts are being made in France to increase the number of regular profitable contracts between artists and manufacturers. We may draw attention to the beneficial work done by the Central Union of Decorative Arts. This combination is not always easy to attain, it being difficult to ensure that intellectual interests are not sacrificed to economic interests, or, at all events, to find an acceptable compromise. The reluctance of economic interests to adopt the varying innovations of art is often supported by public indifference or bad public taste. This point brings us back to the fundamental problem of the dissemination of taste.

Moreover, in this vast and varied field of industrial art, in which the humble capacities of the man of the people co-operate with the conceptions of the highly trained artist, each nation's inventions are sure of ready acceptance and employment by other countries. In this respect the exchange of ideas and models, imitations and adaptations of all kinds are practicable and, what is more, desirable. It is much to be hoped that contracts between artists and even between the makers of artistic objects in different countries will become increasingly frequent. *The Committee might perhaps consider the question of travelling and housing facilities abroad for all classes of artists,* in the same way as it has already dealt with the international interchanges

of university students. Speaking generally, international co-operation for the development of the decorative arts might be much more active than it is; it would appear that it is solely, or almost solely, the fear of competition which has forced the producing nation to adopt an attitude which is more or less one of control. If the growing movement towards the multiplication of international relations in the world of science is intended to promote the development of science itself in the general interest, there is no reason why art, and even, in a certain measure, industrial art, should not be assisted on similar lines. The International Labour Office could, no doubt, give the Committee useful information on this point.

Mindful of the general interest, and deeply concerned in the rivalry displayed in regard to the decorative arts, France has decided to organise a great international exhibition of those arts at an early date. Work is actively in progress in Paris. Apart from the economic effort required, it would appear that French artists and manufacturers are making a considerable intellectual effort for the purpose. The Committee will, no doubt, regard this great international display as an extremely interesting subject for study, and as an opportunity of drawing useful conclusions as to the development of artistic taste in the contemporary world and the possibilities of international co-operation in the domain of art.

ANNEX

LETTER FROM M. EMILE MALE,

PROFESSOR OF THE HISTORY OF ART IN THE UNIVERSITY OF PARIS

Reply to the Questionnaire from the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

The following is a brief reply to your questions.

1. The methods employed in connection with the history of art have been established for some time, but during the last fifteen years they have been better applied than ever before. The number of books is constantly growing, and many are of real value. Minute analyses, comparisons and groupings of works of art have taken the place of the purely literary development of the subjects which were formerly in vogue. All this represents a very genuine progress, with which the rapid growth of the teaching of the history of art in the last fifteen years is closely bound up.

2. The public is keenly interested in this type of study. Courses in the history of art have become much more frequent in Paris and are very well attended. I am convinced that travelling facilities in France—every village can now be visited in a motor-car—have greatly contributed to the development of this taste. A new and unsuspected world is opened up—cathedrals, castles and country-houses, Romanesque churches richly adorned with sculptures, Gothic churches with a wealth of statues and glass—and people are anxious to understand what they have seen. Good books dealing with the history of art have an assured sale.

3. Very large numbers of students follow a course in the history of art at the Sorbonne (I merely mention a point with which I am familiar). They show a very keen appreciation of art, but few of them have had a genuine call to study since the War. In four years I have discovered among my pupils only *two* future historians of art, who have decided to dedicate their lives to this branch of study and to teaching the history of art. Both of them will, I am sure, make excellent masters and savants of the true school. We need a few more, but young men are deterred by the uncertainty of the future. There are far too few Chairs of the history of art in France—they exist only at Paris, Lyons, Lille, Caen and Toulouse. There should be one in every university. Furthermore, the low salaries are not likely to encourage this form of study. A historian of art must be constantly on the road and in contact with the actual works and monuments. University professors are quite unable to travel nowadays upon their stipends, which are not even enough to live on; yet a professor of the history of art who does not travel is like a physician or a chemist who has no laboratory.

4, 5 and 6. What makes this position specially deplorable is the fact that the history of art has never been better equipped—at any rate, at Paris. The Library of Art, bequeathed by M. Doucet to the University of Paris, is the finest in Europe or America. This excellent library has made Paris the real centre of study of the history of art. Italy is alive to the fact, and is attempting to institute a similar library at Rome. Our library must accordingly have sufficient funds to be able to buy every book published, and to complete its collections of photographs. The grant hitherto allowed has been insignificant.

The library publishes a "Répertoire d'Archéologie et d'Art", which contains short analyses of all articles in art reviews published in all countries. As an instrument for work, the "Répertoire" is without parallel and no science perhaps possesses one quite like it. The University of Paris hopes to be able to complete it by appending an analysis of all works on art published during the year. It will then form a perfect instrument.

7. The relations between French and foreign intellectual workers have been conspicuously improved by the Congresses on the history of art. These Congresses, which took place every four years, were interrupted by the War. France took the initiative in reviving them. The Historical Congress held in Paris in September 1921 was attended by no fewer than 700 scholars from Europe, America and even Asia (Germany was not invited) and was an extremely brilliant gathering. A full verbatim account of all communications made to the Congress will shortly appear in two volumes.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO
THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series

INTELLECTUAL LIFE
IN THE
VARIOUS COUNTRIES

GREECE

The Evolution of Legal Studies

by

A. ANDREADES

Professor of Finance and Statistics at the University of Athens ;
Dean of the Faculty of Law.

NOTE

The object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing this series of pamphlets is to call attention to the problems of organisation and intellectual assistance to which each subject gives rise. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but desires rather to bring them to the notice of the public and to provide an opportunity for further suggestions.

THE EVOLUTION OF LEGAL STUDIES IN GREECE

By A. ANDREADES.

translation.]

I.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

The Greeks have always been attracted by the study of law. Attic law and even the ancient laws of Crete (Laws of Gortyna) present features of considerable interest. The development of the study of papyri has proved that Roman law was fused with the legislation of the Greek States and kingdoms of the East before it reached that high point of evolution which is the admiration of the world. From the sixth century to the re-birth of law in Italy in the twelfth century, Constantinople was the only centre where legal studies were held in honour. There the principles of law were evolved (as may be seen, for example, in many imperial Novels, the laws of the iconoclastic emperors, and in what is known as the Rhodian maritime law); the study of sources continued up to the end of the empire (Hexabiblos of Armenopoulos). Thanks to the œcumenical patriarchs, even the disruption of the Greek Empire did not wholly extinguish the study of law. It was from Phanariote princes that, even before Navarino, the Dobruja-Wallachian principalities received codes, which were drawn up in Greek. In view of this historic tradition, it is hardly surprising that, from the foundation of the University at Athens to the present day, law students have exceeded in number those of the other four faculties together.

But although the place was propitious to the study of law, circumstances were not so favourable. For a considerable time, the Kingdom of Greece was a small country, sparsely populated (as long before the population reached two millions) and extremely poor. It is a commonplace that the study of law, like that of economics, can only develop in prosperous surroundings. There are many reasons for this, one of which is that a small country of limited resources cannot support specialist books and reviews, which are no less essential to law than are laboratories to physical science. Yet such was the attraction of the study of law that, in addition to the tracts and treatises published by university professors, works of considerable value were known to the world by a number of magistrates and barristers. Mention should be made of the treatises on civil procedure by Euclides and Potamianos, the treatises on civil law by Economides¹, the treatise on criminal procedure by Constantopoulos, the treatise on commercial law by Simitis, the treatises of Ractivan and Polyghenes on the dotal system and Momferratos² on contracts, and many others.

In addition to these important works, mention should be made of a large number of smaller but no less valuable publications. Attention should also be drawn to the translations of famous French and German treatises (Lyon-Caen, Windscheid, Arndts, etc.), many of which are copiously annotated.

During this period also, two legal reviews, the *Themis* and the *Journal of Jurisprudence*, whose appeal was principally to legal practitioners, were giving as much space as possible to critical studies and publishing full commentaries, many of which are worthy of attention, and legal judgments.

¹ This admirable work was published after Economides had left the University. He lectured on Procedure and also published a remarkable treatise on that subject.

² This author is also celebrated for his edition of the Isaurian *Eclogæ* and other learned works. Some ten years after he abandoned the Bar and politics for the University.

II.

THE PERIOD 1901-1911.

We must, however, confine ourselves to the questions which were put to us, and we will therefore compare the last decade with the preceding one. On first consideration, we are tempted to suppose that the ten years (1901-1911) before the Balkan wars were, from the point of view which concerns us here, a more brilliant period than the years 1913-23.

This last decade has been a period of long wars and intense civil strife. Every man between the ages of 20 and 40 has spent the best period of his life with the colours ¹. Owing to the moratorium, the Bar and the Bench were deprived of many important cases. Moreover through a combination of circumstances — submarine warfare, the increase in freight charges, the rise in the exchange since 1921 and the concomitant rise in wages — the printing of scientific works in a country without paper-mills became a suicidal undertaking. So violent were our civil dissensions that the public had no attention to spare for other matters; and laws of the highest importance, which would in normal times have caused many distinguished lawyers in the Chamber to make speeches of real scientific value, were passed without serious discussion though some of them affected the interests of the general public ².

Nevertheless the period 1913-1923 marks a certain degree of progress, and this is principally due to the reform of the University Statutes in 1911.

Before that time, the teaching of law was defective in several respects.

- (a) There was only one Faculty of Law;
- (b) The salaried staff of the Faculty of Law consisted solely of ordinary professors; there were no extraordinary professors or lecturers, and readers were unpaid;
- (c) The number of ordinary professors was small, and was still further reduced by the fact that they were allowed to occupy two Chairs simultaneously;
- (d) Professors were entitled to plead in all courts and to hold administrative positions in the National Bank;
- (e) Only one examination was held, at the end of the fourth year.

It may be well to discuss these points in detail.

1. *A second Faculty of Law* would have had the double advantage of arousing the competitive spirit and serving as a nursery for the University of Athens.

So great, however, was the attraction of Athens that, even during the British protectorate over the Ionian Islands, Ionian students flocked there rather than to the University of Corfu which, though an older foundation ³, was ultimately suppressed on those grounds in 1867.

The comparative failure of the University of Corfu was principally due to the fact that it had been founded by a private individual (Lord Guildford). The British Administration therefore, took little interest in it, and reduced the teaching staff to an absolute minimum leaving the Faculty of Law with only three professors.

None the less, the University of Corfu was used as an argument against the foundation of

¹ Many of my pupils served from 7 to 9 years between 1912 and 1923 — a state of affairs for which no parallel is to be found in Europe.

² *E.g.* the new divorce and succession laws.

³ It was founded during the Greek War of Independence.

new Faculty ; and indeed, until the liberation of Salonica, it would have been difficult to secure any general agreement as to the proper seat of such a Faculty ¹.

It was also generally considered that there were already too many law students.

For the reasons already mentioned, however, the lack of a second Faculty continued to exercise a detrimental influence on the study of law. An even greater disadvantage was :

2. *The lack of extraordinary professors and salaried lecturers.* The University Statutes did indeed provide for the appointment of *hyphegetai* (corresponding exactly to the German *rival-docents* and which we may call readers). Persons who wished to obtain this status had only to present a thesis and give a lesson within the next twenty-four hours. On the other hand, for a reader to do any useful work required a certain degree of heroism. He was not paid, and he was not in any way concerned in the examinations. Consequently, he was not in a position to exert any moral pressure on his pupils in order to induce them to attend his lectures and to buy his books. The result was that, with certain praiseworthy exceptions, readers never displayed any activity except when, owing to the great age of the holder of a position, a vacancy seemed probable. But their hopes were often vain, for the law was defective in another direction : it fixed no age limit, and many professors lived to a hale old age in defiance of all theories of probability. Even if a professor died, candidates for his position had no security, because there was another regulation, also of doubtful justice, whereby the Faculty could confer the vacant Chair upon one of its members for an indefinite period of time.

Quite apart, however, from this latter regulation, the system was a bad one. No effective effort was made to obtain new professors ; if a vacancy occurred unexpectedly, the University was generally confronted by a dearth of candidates sufficiently mature to hold the position. Other reasons also made the need for extraordinary professors felt : there being no age-limit, many branches of teaching suffered, as it were, from senile decay. Last, and most important :

3. *The number of ordinary Chairs was very small.* There were fourteen in all — three for Civil Law ², and one each for the following subjects : history and institutions, procedure, criminal law, commercial law, philosophy of law, constitutional law, canon law, international law, political economy, finance and statistics. Now, even in theory, fourteen Chairs were no longer sufficient to meet the requirements of modern science in a country which had only one university and no school of political science. In point of fact, they did not meet those requirements at all. In the first place, as we have just observed, one professor was allowed to occupy two Chairs. The result was that there were hardly ever more than ten members of the Faculty of Law, and sometimes there were less, as for a very long time the Chairs of Finance and Statistics and Constitutional Law existed only on paper. The former, which was founded in 1881, was vacant from 1882 onwards, and the latter was normally held by the Professor of International Law. Force of circumstances, however, restored them both to their proper position after 1906. But although the teaching of political and economic science was thus in some degree improved, there remained an obvious need for reinforcement in regard to private law. It is impossible in these days for one man to deal both orally and on paper ³ with the whole field of criminal law (general theory, procedure, principal offences and penitentiary problems), or with such important and, in some aspects, divergent branches as public and private international law.

In such a country as Greece, moreover, it was amazing to find no special instruction in maritime law or ancient Greek law, particularly Attic law, and as there was no school of political

¹ The arguments in favour of Corfu were its historical rights and the fact that its intellectual and artistic development had reached a higher level than that of any other provincial town ; in favour of Patras and Volo, it could be submitted that their populations and their economic activity were continually increasing ; and for Nauplia, it could be urged that the town was the first capital of the Kingdom (the capital was not transferred to Athens until the arrival of King George in Greece).

² I.e. Roman law as applied in Greece (the *Hexabiblos* of Armenopoulos, as modified by an great number of laws passed during the last eighty years).

³ In a country with only one University a professor must write as well as lecture.

science, applied political economy (rural and industrial economy, etc.), diplomatic history and other subjects had to be taught in the Faculty of Law. Some of these subjects might certainly have been attached to more general branches of study ; diplomatic history, for example, might have been taught by the professor of international public law. In any case, however, as there were no extraordinary professors, it was essential that there should be from fifteen to twenty Chairs.

4. *Ordinary professors were entitled to plead in all Courts and to act as Directors of the National Bank.* In point of fact, the professors were the masters of the Bar, and one of the two deputy-governors of the National Bank was almost always a member of the Faculty ¹.

There were many who defended this state of affairs. They argued :

(a) That the worst possible thing was to separate theory from practice, and that that was unfortunately what happened when professors shut themselves up in their libraries ;

(b) That professors' salaries were less than modest ², amounting to scarcely a tenth of the income of a practising barrister, and that it was therefore useless to hope that eminent lawyers would enter the Faculty of Law, or remain in it, unless they were allowed to appear in the Courts ;

(c) That it was untrue to say that a barrister with an extensive practice could not do scientific work, in view of the fact that Kalligas, Paparrighopoulos, Economides, Rhallys, Costis, Saripolos and Aravantinos ³, authors of the extensive treatises which are an ornament to Greek science, were professors playing an active part at the Bar.

The first two arguments carry some weight, but can be refuted. A professor can confine his activities to pleading before the Supreme Court and giving advice, and can thus keep in touch with legal practice and improve his position without turning his study into an office.

The third argument is less weighty than it seems. The men who are quoted as having carried on important scientific work simultaneously with an extensive practice were remarkable men with exceptional powers of endurance. They worked from twelve to fourteen hours a day and seldom took a holiday. Moreover, most of them belonged to a period (1850-1880) when science was less highly specialised and less exacting ⁴ than it is to-day. Of the professors who were appointed after 1880, those who published treatises were in most cases (Crassas, Anghelopoulos, Cazazes, Dimaras and George Streit) scientists who were mainly concerned with teaching, while those who may be called barrister-professors wrote very little — in some cases not at all. Some of them might urge that their predecessors had left full treatises on the subjects. This excuse, however, was hardly likely to satisfy the public, since many of the professors in question were eminent jurists, and their teaching was in itself evidence of the unceasing evolution of science.

5. *Only one examination was held, at the end of the fourth year.* This system had at one time many ardent defenders, including Paul Kalligas, the greatest of Greek jurists. The principal argument in its favour was that annual examinations gave the student a fragmentary and disconnected impression of the subject, and obliged the professor to complete his course in one year, thus leading him to stereotype his teaching ; in other words the reduced a University to the level of a secondary school. It was not remembered that, in the absence of annual examinations, professors were inclined to let themselves go and treat

¹ Between 1867 and 1914 Governors Renieris, Kalligas, Streit and Eftaxias were all former professors who had held the position of Deputy-Governor.

² They averaged 6,000 francs, together with from 2,000 to 3,000 francs in examination fees.

³ Authors of treatises, on Greco-Roman law, procedure, commercial law, criminal law, international law and constitutional law.

⁴ If only from the point of view of bibliography.

in detail all the questions in which they were interested. The courses were spread out over several years. Students who were anxious to follow them daily had to be in the lecture-rooms from morning to night (I have known some who attended seven or eight lectures a day). The others simply did not attend lectures at all ; they spent three years in doing nothing, or — as often happens in Greece — in earning their living, and the fourth in being “crammed” by a *phronistes* (coach). These gentlemen had a considerable hold over the students, because anyone who did not seek the benefit of their experience ran the risk of failure even if he had worked hard; he had no experience of examinations, and the professor (who was not, as he now is, in possession of a record of the annual examinations) had no personal knowledge of the student, particularly as seminaries were not compulsory.

In order to obtain a complete idea of the difficulties which hampered the study of law before 1911, we must remember furthermore :

6. That, as we have already observed, Greece was until 1911 a country with less than three million inhabitants, and also that modern Greek *is almost unread outside the Balkan Peninsula*. However remarkable a book may be, if it is written in Greek it has no hope of being reviewed in any legal magazine. This is extremely discouraging. But for Zachariae von Lingenthal and the late Dean of the Faculty of Law at Bordeaux, Henri Monnier, the very name of Kalligas would never have been heard outside our frontiers.

Notwithstanding all these difficulties, and despite certain individual failures, the Faculty of Law at Athens has well deserved of science.

Its first two generations of professors (those appointed between 1837 and 1900) have given the country three treatises on civil law (Kalligas, Paparrighopoulos and Krassas), a treatise on procedure (Economides), a treatise on commercial law (Rhallys), a treatise on constitutional law¹ and another on international public law (N. J. Saripolos), a treatise on criminal law (Costis), a treatise on administrative law (Anghelopoulos), a treatise on encyclopedia of law (Cazazes), a treatise on political economy (Soutsos), a treatise on international private law (George Streit), and an abstract of the “Institutes” (Dimaras).

Moreover, with two or three exceptions, all the other professors have to their credit important monographs and even works in several volumes.

It has been observed that some of the professors in this last category wrote more before their appointment than afterwards. The reason, no doubt, is that their arduous University duties, combined with their outside responsibilities, left them little time for writing. This is an argument in favour of restricting very closely either the right of professors to practise at the bar or their participation in the administration of the National Bank.

¹ Two other remarkable treatises on constitutional law were published by the late Professor J. Aravantinos, who was appointed in 1906, and his successor, Professor N. N. Saripolos.

III.

THE PERIOD 1911-1923.

A. *General character of the laws of 1911 and 1922.*

The period opens with the important University Law of 1911. This new Statute, as it affects the special interests of the Faculty of Law, should be considered :

(a) *From the point of view of the Professors.*

It imposed upon them the following new obligations :

1. Not to plead except before the higher Courts ¹ ;
2. To give at least three lectures a week, and seminars in addition ² ;
3. To publish their lectures at the end of three years.

(b) *From the point of view of the Students.*

1. Seminars were made compulsory ;
2. A system of annual examinations was introduced, culminating in a comprehensive examination at the end of the fourth year ;
3. For the doctor's degree — which is optional and is only necessary in the case of candidates for higher educational posts — a printed thesis was requested.

(c) *From the point of view of Chairs.*

1. The number of ordinary Chairs was increased ;
2. The age limit was fixed at 70 ;
3. Extraordinary Chairs were founded. These are of two kinds. Some are intended to supplement ordinary Chairs which cover very extensive subjects (civil law, penal law, commercial law) by enabling the holder of the Chair to delegate to his assistant such subjects as can be detached from the principal course (maritime law, penitentiary science). The others, which are called independent (*autoteleis*), are set apart for branches of study which are essential to some classes of students, but not to all (*e.g.* diplomatic history for candidates for the Foreign Office, and Moslem law for Turkish Greeks), or which are suitable to a Greek University (ancient Greek Law) or which merely meet the requirements of such students who wish to complete their legal or political education ².

Apart from certain alterations of detail of greater or less value, some of which (such as the extension of the age limit) have already disappeared, the Law of 1922 did not depart from the general principles of the Law of 1911. In the matter of Chairs it went further : the number of ordinary Chairs was increased from 13 to 18, and the number of special Chairs from 9 to a maximum of 29. (The number will depend to some extent upon the Faculty.)

Lists of the Chairs instituted under the Laws of 1911 and 1922 will be found in the Appendix. These lists show no essential differences, and it would be of little interest to compare them.

¹ Posts which entail still more arduous work, such as those of Governor and Deputy-Governor of the National Bank, are, of course, regarded as incompatible with the work of a professor.

² *E.g.* the Chair of Legal Encyclopedia.

³ It may, however, be noted that the two Chairs of Procedure have been combined, in order to put an end to a scientific solecism. In 1911 the Minister of Education was rightly anxious to enable two young, but distinguished scientists, both of whom have since died prematurely, to enter the Faculty. He had not the courage to speak out what was in his mind and to create two Chairs of Civil Procedure, so he detached criminal procedure from penal law and attached it to civil procedure. The Faculty of Law had protested in advance against this combination, which had no parallel in any university organisation, and asked for a single Chair of Civil Procedure and two Chairs of Penal Law, one of which was to cover procedure and penitentiary science. I mention this episode, which is now closed, in the hope that such errors will not occur again.

We also give as an appendix a table showing the number of students who matriculated and the number of candidates for degrees during recent years. The considerable increase in these figures, and the even more notable increase in the number of Chairs, brings us back to a question which has been considered above.

Is it desirable that a second Faculty of Law should be established in Greece ?

In 1911, the question did not arise really, because the Kingdom of Greece had not then been enlarged. But to-day, when its area and population have about doubled, the question does arise. The seat of a second Faculty should quite obviously be Salonica.

None the less, the Law of 1922 was passed without any discussion on that subject outside Parliament. This fact was due to the circumstances of the time. The law was passed at the very end of the session ; and public attention was of course fixed entirely on Asia Minor (this was shortly before the disaster). Moreover, under the Turks the city of Salonica had become purely commercial. Its people, and particularly the powerful Jewish element, have not yet realised the advantages they would derive from the possession of a great intellectual centre. At the present time there are many people in Athens who would like to fill a University Chair and who are qualified to do so ; but there are few such in Salonica. In any case, the Macedonian members, who hold the upper hand in the last Chamber, did not raise the question ; nor did their predecessors insist that the commercial high school which was founded in 1920 should be established on the shores of the Thermaic Gulf ¹.

This lack of eagerness was also no doubt largely due to the terrible fire ² which partially destroyed Salonica in the summer of 1917 ; for it was extremely difficult to find lecture-rooms or lodgings for students. But the Macedonian members were undoubtedly influenced also by a question of principle : there is a general impression in Greece that one complete University is better than two incomplete ones.

This is perfectly true in the case of Faculties which require expensive equipment (hospitals, laboratories, etc.), and those which have few students (theology). As regards the Faculty of Law it is less certain. It is, of course, eminently satisfactory that Greece should have a Faculty which, with nearly forty ordinary and extraordinary professors and an unlimited number of readers ³, can compete with the great Faculties of other countries. Nevertheless, a second Faculty would be of considerable value. As we have already observed, it would be both a rival and a nursery. It would make it possible to appoint at Athens professors who had already proved their value both as writers and as teachers ⁴. Moreover, there are really too many law students now at Athens ; the professors are obliged to spend as much time on examinations as on their lectures. The seminaries are overflowing and have to be divided up. The professor can no longer, as he used to do, cope with all the students. Furthermore, the law of 1922 has duplicated several Chairs. No difficulty is raised by the existence of several Chairs of Civil Law, seeing that the different branches of this vast science are spread over several years. But political economy, administrative law and commercial law are taught in one year ; yet there will soon be two professors for each of these subjects. Are the students to be overburdened by having to attend two courses of lectures ? Or will they be left to make a somewhat dangerous choice ? Moreover, in the unfortunate event of the opinions of the two professors differing on a number of points, the minds of their hearers will be hopelessly confused, and they will find themselves at a disadvantage if they do not share the views of whichever professor examines them. ⁵

¹ This would have been perfectly simple, as all mention of the seat of the school was carefully omitted from the law establishing it.

² The Greek administration was not responsible for the spread of the fire, as the town was then under the authority of General Sarrail. The fire was entirely unexpected and caused immense confusion ; no effective steps were taken even to protect the wonderful Cathedral of St. Demetrius.

³ See below with reference to the elasticity which the law of 1911 gave to the *huphegessia*.

⁴ Under the present system, a scholar who has produced one or two valuable works is certain of election to a vacant Chair, though he may have no gift for teaching.

⁵ At Paris those of us who wanted to make sure of having flawless examination papers used to note down the views of the two professors of Civil Law or Roman Law, so that, whichever turned out to be the examiner, they could submit to him his own ideas.

In this report, I am principally concerned with the scientific side, and am not considering the national and social aspects. They cannot, however, be entirely ignored. Greece must display her superiority over Turkey by restoring to Salonica, which had been reduced to the position of a mere emporium, the combined intellectual and commercial eminence for which it was noted under the Byzantine Empire ¹, just as she has already restored its artistic character ².

From the social point of view the excessive centralisation, from which all the Balkan States are suffering should be reduced. For students themselves, most of whom will spend their lives as provincial barristers, magistrates, and officials, a provincial Faculty offers many advantages, one of which is economy.

I am treating this question in some detail partly because in one form or another it arises in several small countries, and partly because it is of more practical significance than might appear. Greece founded a University at Smyrna on principles different from those of the University of Athens. (It would be of interest to have a report by its organiser, M. Constantine Caratheodori, Professor at the University of Göttingen, and subsequently at the University of Athens, on the principles on which the Smyrna University was established.) The destruction of all the Christian quarters of Smyrna included that of the University. It is probable that, sooner or later, it will be refounded at Salonica.

B. *The effects of the Law of 1911.*

As we have already observed, the Law of 1922 did not initiate any new principle in regard to the Faculty of Law. A Committee has been appointed to revise the law, and will doubtless return to the position set up by the Law of 1911 on certain points of detail; this has already been done in connection with the age limit.

The Law of 1911, on the other hand, may be judged by its results, and we shall therefore confine ourselves principally to this Law. It may, however, be noted at the outset that, although it has been in force twelve years, circumstances have hitherto prevented it from taking full effect.

Soon after it was passed, the Balkan Wars broke out, and were followed by the Great War, which involved Greece in eight years of mobilisation or actual fighting (1915-1923), as well as internal struggles with the vicissitudes of which all our readers will be familiar.

Circumstances seemed to conspire to prevent the execution of reforms. Men under the age of forty, who should naturally have provided most of the extraordinary professors, were constantly with the colours. Consequently only three extraordinary professors were available for election.

The state of affairs in regard to *privat-docents* or readers was similar. The *hyphegeissia* regulations set no limit to the number of readers who might be appointed to existing Chairs, extraordinary and ordinary. With the consent of the Faculty a man could become a *hyphegeles* in some special branch or in a discipline which was not taught. The object of these regulations was to provide, side by side with the salaried teaching, free teaching of a more varied and elastic nature. Nevertheless, there were only two readers to offer themselves for appointment.

Moreover, exemption from the annual examinations was rendered inevitable by the long periods of mobilisation. Only very young students, who had never been mobilised, were obliged to take these examinations.

Yet another point: the war made the composition and publication of a book a serious problem. The cost of paper and printing in Greece was at prohibitive rates. It was impossible ³, or almost impossible, to procure books from abroad, and a visit to a foreign library

¹ See *Thessalonica in the 14th Century*, a thesis for a doctorate in two volumes, presented to the Sorbonne by M. Tafrali, now Professor at Jassy.

² In 1914 a remarkable Academy of Music was established at Salonica; some of its professors are composers who will shortly attain the highest rank among Greek musicians. It organises important concerts, and its pupils are daily increasing in numbers.

³ In the case of Germany and Austria.

meant running the gauntlet of submarines and rapacious hotel-keepers. At such a time young scholars had no hope of producing the books which would have gained them appointments as assistant professors or readers. Such were the difficulties of publication encountered even by the ordinary professors that the Ministry did not enforce the regulation requiring them to publish their lectures — a regulation which, in any case, aroused considerable opposition, as we shall find.

The Conferences which followed the Armistice were no less detrimental to education : the Government required the services of professors of international law and economics as technical experts, and would not permit them to decline the honour of being taken from their work for nearly a year and sometimes much more.

Lastly, our unhappy internal dissensions had a disastrous effect upon the Faculty of Law. At the beginning of 1917 a professor who had taken part in the Salonica outbreak was dismissed. He was reinstated after King Constantine's departure, but the new Government, under the influence of extremist elements and (it must be admitted) under pressure from certain unenlightened scholars of allied nations, decided, in December 1917, to purge the University of those professors who were suspected of German sympathies. This purgation, like all such operations, involved certain injustices. The dismissal of three members of the Faculty of Law gave rise, notwithstanding the indisputable merits of their successors, to considerable discontent even among sincere, but impartial, supporters of the *Entente*. Both in principle and in its results it was deplorable. When the Venizelists were defeated in 1920, the Royalists quite justly reinstated the dismissed professors, but rather unwisely dismissed their successors. The effect of these changes was that the professorial body became disorganised and discredited. Had they been permanent, we should have ended with two sets of professors. Fortunately, however, the Committee appointed to reach a final settlement of the question after the last change of government (December 1922) succeeded, though not without difficulty, in convincing the revolutionary Government that the reinstatement of the professors dismissed in 1920 should not entail the re-dismissal of their successors — a view which the author of the present report had maintained from the outset. This conciliatory measure was made easy by the increase in the number of Chairs under the Law of 1922, and peace was thus restored in the University. It is to be hoped that politics will play no further part in University affairs. In a small country, and more particularly in a southern country, feeling runs high and misunderstandings easily occur. Politics should be as completely separate from University affairs as they are from the administration of the law.

In the light of the experience gained in King Otto's reign ¹, Greek legislation had been directed towards a separation of duties. It prohibited the combination of a professorship with membership of Parliament or ministerial office, and it gave the University power to select its own professors for appointment. Since 1917 enactments of a more or less temporary character have made it possible to evade the application of these wise principles ; but they must be reasserted with full authority, and the long-respected immunity of professors from dismissal must henceforth remain inviolable.

Despite this amazing combination of unfavourable circumstances, the Law of 1911 has produced remarkable results so far as its application has been possible.

(a) *The examination system*, which consists, as we have already seen, of an ingenious combination of the French and German systems (annual examination followed by a final examination covering the whole ground), has carried the study of law to a pitch of efficiency which is beyond all praise. This system can be thoroughly recommended to every country. The student begins to work at the very outset ; he is obliged to study every branch of the science in turn, and he does not, as formerly, plunge into the final examination as into an uncharted sea. Moreover, the existence of the final examination removes the principal disadvantage of annual

¹ Until 1864 professors were allowed to enter Parliament and to hold office.

examinations ; the science is no longer presented to the student in separate portions, tempting him to forget those on which he will not be examined further. When he has made a thorough study of the individual parts, he has to deal with the whole.

With regard to teaching, the fear that it would become stereotyped has proved to a large extent illusory in practice. The conscientious professor, though hampered by lack of time, will bring his lectures into line with the forward movement of science, and will show the students how to make an exhaustive study of a subject by devoting "special lectures" to the different sections of his course in turn. From the students' point of view, the present system is in every respect an improvement upon the old system, under which a professor could spread his course over an indefinite number of terms.

On this subject I speak with some experience. Under the old system my course of lectures on finance and statistics covered two years. I am now obliged to finish it in one. I do not think that it loses any of its scientific value by the change ; for, apart from the fact that a systematic survey is as useful to the student as a detailed analysis, one portion or another of the subject is always considered in detail ¹, so that the student learns the proper method of making a special study of a subject.

In short, under the system of annual examinations, the only "stereotyped" lectures are those given by professors who, even under the old system, brought little alterations to their lessons.

(b) *Seminaries* are compulsory both for the professor and for the student ². The system of annual courses and annual examinations thus gains in completeness. The professor comes into personal contact with the student, and supplements his lectures by elucidating such points as were not understood by all. The seminary is to a certain extent a valuable coaching class ; but it is more than that. It may also be a debating society, or have the value of a scientific laboratory. The more gifted students are given special work. With the natural intelligence of young Greeks and with the aid of a widespread knowledge of foreign languages and a keen spirit of emulation, even first- and second-year students can produce really individual work well worth printing ³. The more-advanced students produce work which will bear comparison with the best theses submitted for doctorates in the great faculties of Western Europe ⁴.

The only hindrance to the work of the seminaries is the excessive number of law students.

(c) *Publications by Professors*. As we have already seen, the clause in the law whereby professors are obliged to publish their lectures within three years was not enforced.

Many objections were raised against this clause, and were brought forward at the outset in the Senate of the University. It was argued that no such provision is to be found in the laws of any other country ; that in all countries there are professors who have never written anything ; that a lack of literary gifts does not prevent a man from being an excellent teacher ; that the clause is both illiberal and anti-scientific, because the cause of science is better served by treatises and monographs than by text-books ; and that the author is liable to be involved in considerable financial difficulties, since the State does not guarantee the sale of the text-book which it compels him to write.

My own opinion is that all these objections should be met, not by rescinding the clause, but by enlarging its scope. It is true that some professors rank by common consent as great masters solely on the strength of their lectures and the pupils they have produced ; but they belonged to countries which were well supplied with universities, and where other

¹ *E.g.* Greek taxation, the history of Greek finance, war and post-war finance, and so forth.

² They had been introduced by Professors Dimaras and Streit, whose example was followed by the younger professors, but they were still in every respect optional.

³ My own seminary has published in a large volume a series of monographs by second-year students on emigration in their respective provinces. A number of other students have also published on their own account essays which are equally worthy of attention.

⁴ Owing to the high cost of printing, many of these studies, produced in recent years, are still in manuscript.

professors treated the same subjects in print. In Greece, if the competent professor does not write, the chances are that the subject will remain untouched. It is therefore quite reasonable that the law should require professors to write, but it should allow them to publish treatises instead of text-books if they prefer to do so, and should in that case give them more time. Obviously it should also make provision to protect professors — already not well paid¹ — from serious financial sacrifices. The only method of doing so in those Faculties which have few students (letters, science and theology) is to grant considerable subsidies. In the Faculty of Law there is no need to subsidise text-books, as they can always find a publisher. But this is not the case as regards treatises and monographs, and the State should therefore supply the paper, or at all events exempt it from duty.

The position in Greece is this : paper for newspapers is free of duty, but paper for books, including scientific works, is subject to duties which are particularly heavy owing to the depreciation of the drachma and to the fact that Customs duties are levied in gold. This state of affairs is easy to explain. Those classes which have political power have always managed to evade taxation²; and at the present day the Press in every country is omnipotent, whilst scientific writers have little influence in Parliaments. But, though easy to explain, this position is none the less regrettable, for it is equivalent to the levying of a fine upon intellectual progress.

The State being of no assistance, the University comes to the aid of its members by purchasing a certain number of copies of new works. Such assistance would be of more value if it were carried out more systematically, and with a greater regard for the dignity of the professor³. If paper were exempted from duty, and if at the same time the University established its own printing-press, the problem would be solved. In that case it would be easier for the State to compel a professor to write, as he would be secure against losses on publication; it would, indeed, be desirable that the State should give him a royalty, based on the extent of the work and the number of copies sold. A University Press might involve the University in less extensive financial sacrifices than is commonly imagined, for the deficit on the sale of some publications would be made up on that of others (legal and medical text-books). Be that as it may, a printing-press is no less essential than laboratories or clinics.

Meanwhile, the publication of any book but an elementary text-book is an exceedingly hazardous undertaking, for a professor of law, at all events under present conditions. But, notwithstanding all the risks, nearly all the professors in the Faculty of Law have continued to write, although not forced to do so. Professor Eliopoulos has published his treatise on criminal law and Professor N. N. Saripolos has completed and revised his treatise on constitutional law⁴; Professor Momferratos and Papoulias have each completed two parts of their courses of lectures on Greco-Roman law. Professors Seferiades and Anastassiades have published the first parts of their treatises on international public law and commercial law. Professors Rhallys, Livadas and Triantaphyllopoulos have produced various volumes and monographs on canon law, procedure and civil law. The present writer himself has published three volumes on financial history and ten smaller works dealing principally with contemporary Greek financial and economic questions⁵.

¹ In 1922, the stipend of a professor in drachmæ was increased to six times as much as it was in 1911; but at that time the drachma was at par. Now a gold franc is worth twelve drachmas, so in fact the actual salary is half what it was.

² In former times the villain was liable to unlimited taxation and statute labour, "whereas the nobles owed only their blood and the clergy their prayers" (Reply of the Bishop of Sens to Richelieu). In these days it is the other way: the workers cast the whole weight of direct taxation on the higher classes.

³ Many professors are reluctant to accept such assistance.

⁴ Owing to the revision of the Greek constitution and to the legislative and constitutional reforms due to the war, the recent editions of this remarkable work are to all intents and purposes a new book.

⁵ Several of these works have appeared in French or English.

CONCLUSION.

The evolution of legal studies in Greece may be summed up as an opening period of great brilliance (1837-1875) largely due to the number of eminent Greeks who were members of the Faculty of Law, followed by a period of comparative decadence, the chief cause of which was that the Chairs were filled by jurists who, though in many respects not inferior to their predecessors, were not so much professors as barristers. The last years of the nineteenth century mark the beginning of a renaissance, manifested in the Law of 1911, one of the effects of which is to confine the work of the Faculty of Law more exclusively to pure legal science. The good effects of this law were hampered, however, by wars and civil dissensions.

So much for the past. Now as to the future.

In the first place, it is to be observed that the field of action of every department of Greek scientific and intellectual activity is peculiarly limited. The Hellenism of Asia Minor and Thrace has been extinguished, and the race has lost one of its outlets. Moreover, modern Greek is unknown abroad, and it is sad to have to admit that no Greek work, however valuable, is even noted outside our boundaries. The only public for Greek books is to be found in the inhabitants of the kingdom itself, such Greeks as remain in Constantinople and those who are scattered abroad¹ — six or seven millions in all.

But the science of law, like philology and archæology, and for similar reasons, is in a better position in regard to its field of action than are the natural sciences.

In the first place, not only is modern Greek unknown abroad, but, owing to the decay of classical studies, ancient Greek, and particularly the Greek of the papyri and the Byzantine sources, is familiar only to a few scholars. There are, therefore, some branches of the history of law in which Greek jurists hold a privileged position; and these are most important branches, for classical Roman law was powerfully influenced by Hellenic law, whilst Roman law as practised in many European countries from the twelfth to the nineteenth century, and still reflected, though with considerable modifications, in many civil codes, is very largely derived from Byzantine Greek law.

Every step forward in the study of papyri, inscriptions and other sources extends the importance of Greek law, and thus widens the field of work open to modern Greek jurists. Their prospects are also improving in another direction. The legislation of modern Greece was for a long time marked by an extremely conservative spirit. No attempt was made to improve upon the laws passed between 1830 and 1840. Those which concerned civil law were based upon greco-roman law²; the three Greek codes of civil procedure, commercial law and criminal law upon the French and Bavarian codes. So many authoritative commentaries had been written abroad on these systems of law that the Greek commentator was hampered at the outset in being unable to make his personality felt; and as this legislation was not only unoriginal but also immutable, the young jurist had to compete both with the great legal experts of foreign countries and also with the first generation of Greek commentators. For the last fifteen years, on the contrary, Greece has displayed remarkable activity in legislation. Large parts of the civil law have been remodelled by important enactments, and, in addition, we have been given a new code of maritime law, while criminal procedure has been made more liberal. Some of these changes were carried out somewhat hastily, and there have been omissions which increase the interest of the commentators' work. It has also been decided to draw up a civil code and to

¹ Apart from the perfectly-organised Greek community in Egypt, these Greeks are scattered, and most of them are engaged in trade or manual labour. Those who have any intellectual propensities are naturally inclined to turn their eyes rather to the country in which they live than to the mother-country.

² Except in the Ionian Islands, where the code drawn up under the British Protectorate was an imitation of the Code Napoléon, though the law of succession was based upon the old aristocratic Venetian legislation, particularly as regards the privileges of male heirs.

carry out a thorough revision of the three existing codes¹. Committees are now engaged upon this work, and all the principles of law are in the melting-pot.

There is great and splendid work to be done by Greek jurists. Will they be equal to it? They may, if circumstances are in their favour. We can only hope for a period of calm in which the many new Chairs, both ordinary and extraordinary, which have been established in the Faculty of Law can produce the results expected of them. The Government, on its side, can promote the growth of as large a body of legal literature as can be expected in a small country by compelling both old and new professors to publish books, and, at the same time, by assisting them to do so — at all events by removing such troublesome hindrances as the paper duty. In the wider aspect of the question — for the progress of the study of law is also partly dependent on the Bench and the Bar — the appearance of a new generation of jurists is an encouraging sign. These young men are accused of undue haste, and of premature ambition for high appointments and extensive practices. But it must be remembered that “arrivisme” is a widespread disease and is largely due to the great war. Despite this deplorable phenomenon, our army of young barristers is large and active, familiar with the latest developments of science abroad and receptive of modern ideas. They may have high ambitions, but they have also high ideals. Their activities are reflected by the new magazines which have been founded in recent years; one of the best of these is a monthly legal review called *Dikaiossini* (“Justice”), which, unlike the older publications, is intended rather for the jurist than for the practitioner.

P.-S. — When writing this essay, the author was compelled by ill-health to work at a distance from any library, and there are therefore numerous omissions, principally bibliographical. Only treatises are referred to; in regard to monographs, it has been thought better to omit all mention of them than to leave out some of the most important.

APPENDIX A.

Chairs established under the Laws of 1911 and 1922.

I. *Law of 1911.*

) 13 ordinary Chairs.

- 1– 3. Civil Law.
4. Penal Law.
5. Commercial Law.
- 6– 7. Civil and Criminal Procedure.
8. Constitutional Law.
9. International Public and Private Law.
10. Political Economy.
11. Public Finance and Statistics.
12. Administrative Law.
13. Canon Law.

) 4 independent extraordinary Chairs.

1. Philosophy and Encyclopedia of Law.
2. History of Greek Law.
3. Mussulman Law and Law governing Christians resident in Turkey.
4. Political and Diplomatic History.

¹ Commercial Code, Penal Code and Code of Civil Procedure.

(c) 5 auxiliary extraordinary Chairs.

1. Civil Law.
2. Commercial Law (with special reference to Maritime Law and comparative legislation).
3. Penal Law and Prison Legislation.
4. International Law (with special reference to International Private Law).
5. Administrative Law, with special reference to the Law governing particular branches of the administration.

II. *Law of 1922.*

(a) 18 ordinary Chairs.

- 1- 4. Civil Law.
- 5- 6. Commercial Law.
- 7- 8. Penal Law.
- 9-10. Political Economy.
11. International Private Law.
13. Canon Law.
12. International Public Law and Diplomatic History.
14. General Principles of Administrative Law.
15. Administrative Law in force in Greece.
16. Constitutional Law.
17. Public Finance.
18. Civil Procedure.

(b) 10 independent extraordinary Chairs.

1. Introduction to the Science of Law and Philosophy of Law.
2. History of Greek Law from the earliest times to the foundation of the Hellenic Kingdom.
3. Mussulman Law and Law governing Christians resident in Turkey.
4. Comparative Civil Legislation.
5. Criminology and Prison Organisation.
6. Sociology.
7. Introduction to Economic Science and History of Economic Science and Life.
8. Financial Legislation.
9. Social Legislation and Policy.
10. Statistics.

(c) Auxiliary extraordinary Chairs.

At the request of the Faculty, one auxiliary Chair may be created for each ordinary Chair.

APPENDIX B.

Number of matriculated students and number of candidates for fourth-year examination at different dates.

Academic year	Matriculated	Candidates for Diploma
1892-93	288	208
1902-03	444	165
1912-13	412	114
1922-23	1,247	726 ¹

¹ The immense difference between 1912-13 and 1922-23 is in part due to the fact that the former year was the year of the Balkan wars, while in November 1922 classes which had served several consecutive years were demobilised. Nevertheless it is also in a large measure due to a real increase in the number of students.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO
THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series

INTELLECTUAL LIFE
IN
VARIOUS COUNTRIES

HUNGARY

GENERAL SITUATION

by

O. de HALECKI

Professor at the University of Warsaw
Secretary of the Committee

With an Annex on Literary Production in Hungary from 1913 to 1922.

NOTE

The object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing this series of pamphlets is to call attention to the problems of organisation and intellectual assistance to which each subject gives rise. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but desires rather to bring them to the notice of the public and to provide an opportunity for further suggestions.

GENERAL SITUATION OF INTELLECTUAL WORK IN HUNGARY

BY O. DE HALECKI.

The general survey, which is given in this report, of the position of intellectual life in Hungary is based primarily on the statement by the Hungarian Minister for Public Worship and Education which was forwarded by the Hungarian Government in reply to the questionnaire of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. Material has also been obtained from the report of the National Hungarian Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, more particularly from its introductory note and the statistical data which it furnishes in regard to the economic crisis. The information given in these two documents is confirmed by the general observations which in most cases preface the replies of the persons consulted through the questionnaire for specialists sent out by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.¹

Among the documents annexed to the Hungarian Government's reply, special interest attaches to a report on the production of books in Hungary during the last ten years. The statement of the Minister for Public Education draws the Committee's attention to this problem, and emphasises its supreme importance in relation to intellectual activity and scientific progress in Hungary. The document in question is reproduced almost *in extenso* as an annex to this paper. The last portion only (Section 3) has been somewhat abridged.

¹ At the time of writing, replies have been received from the following :

MM. D. Angyal ; V. Concha ; J. Fröhlich ; Z. Gombocz ; E. de Grosz ; V. Homan ; R. de Kövesligethy ; G. de Mar-
ary and A. Pauler, Professors at the University of Budapest ; also from Count A. Apponyi, former Minister of Public
ducation ; A. de Berzeviczy, former Minister of Public Education and President of the Hungarian Academy ; E. Császár,
ofessor at the University at Pécs ; Z. Ferenczi, Director of the University Library ; J. Kuerschák, Professor of the Poly-
chnic School ; C. Rados, Professor at the Polytechnic School ; Lad. Ravasz, Bishop of the Reformed Church ; J. de Végh,
rector of the Museum of Decorative Arts ; Baron J. Wlassics, First President of the Administrative High Court.

Two of these gentlemen (Baron Jules Wlassics and Dr Emil de Grosz) have published their replies in the *Revue
Hongrie* (Issue of June 15th, -July 15th, 1923). All these replies and many others which have been received from intel-
tual institutes and associations will be used in compiling the special reports on the various aspects of Hungarian intel-
tual life.

I

Past History and the Causes of the Present Crisis

The Minister of Public Education points out in his statement that it is essential, in order to form a just estimate of the intellectual life of Hungary, to take count of the isolation in which she has dwelt not only in such matters as race and language, but also, and more especially, in regard to her historical evolution.

After Hungary had been converted to Christianity, at the end of the tenth century, she had formed numerous intellectual ties with the Western nations. In the reign of King Matthias Corvinus, of the Hunyad dynasty (1458-1490), Hungarian national civilisation had attained its zenith, thanks to the influence of the Italian Renaissance. These links with the West were severed during the Turkish occupation (1526 to 1686), and for a further period of two centuries the intellectual development of Hungary was retarded owing to political causes. It was not until after the signature of the Austro-Hungarian Acts of Union of 1867 that Hungarian intellectual life was able to make serious progress and to carry on the traditions established by a thousand years of civilisation. This era of development dates from the beginning of the nineteenth century, a period marked by an accentuation of national sentiment in all the countries of Europe. This period witnessed the birth of the National Hungarian Museum (1802) and of the Hungarian Academy of Science (1825). The report of the Hungarian Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which was created under the auspices of this Academy, points to the long list of Hungarians who attained distinction during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries in every domain of science, art and literature.

After an era of great prosperity during the last half-century, Hungarian intellectual life is now passing through a very serious crisis. In striving to maintain the high standard which it had reached, it has to battle with unexampled difficulties, the most serious of which are mentioned in the statement by the Minister of Public Education.

These difficulties are due, in the first place, to the economic crisis — one of the results of Hungary's defeat in the Great War — to the burdens imposed upon her for reparations and to the depreciation of her currency. The Hungarian crown, which, before the war, was worth 105 Swiss centimes, had fallen in May 1923 to 0.10 centimes. The rise in prices produced by this depreciation of the currency may be seen from the following table :

	June 30th 1914	Dec. 31st 1922	May 15th 1923 (crowns)	June 30th 1923
1 bread roll.	0.04	9.5	24	31
1 kilogramme of fat.	1.50	800	2,250	5,200
1 — of potatoes.	0.14	32	34	120
1 — of sugar.	0.82	450	1,310	2,120
1 — of butter.	3.—	1,300	3,600	4,400
1 egg.	0.07	40	64	120
1 kilogramme of soap	0.80	410	1,800	2,000
1 pair of boots	15.—	7,200	22,000	25,000
1 suit of clothes.	100.—	40,000	98,000	120,000
1 man's shirt	3.50	5,500	8,200	9,000
Washing one collar.	0.05	15	50	65

The Hungarian Government's memorandum also indicates that the present crisis is due in part to political causes. For instance, some difficulty is found in maintaining continuous intellectual relations between Hungary and the Hungarian-speaking subjects of the neighbouring States.

In addition to these economic and political causes, account must be taken of certain psychological factors, and finally there are the direct consequences of the long years of war. We cannot do better than quote, in regard to this matter, the reply of Count Albert Apponyi, former Minister of Public Education and Member of the Hungarian Academy, to the questionnaire sent out by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. He prefaces his reply with the following observations :

"Since the war ended an all-round deterioration has set in. This is evidenced by the intellectual inferiority of the younger generation which pursued its studies during the war at a time when it was necessary to shut one's eyes to many shortcomings and to pass candidates who were insufficiently prepared for their examinations owing to the interruption of their studies by military service. Hurried, abridged courses had to be substituted for the regular curriculum, with the results which might be expected. The same symptoms, due to similar reasons, may indeed be noticed in all the countries which took part in the war ; I have seen a report coming from France which records facts even worse than those met with in our experience.

"In these circumstances it is even more important than at normal times that our intellectual workers should intensify their efforts. Unfortunately, the contrary is the case, for reasons which are independent of the goodwill of individuals. In the first place, all our salaried teaching staff — professors, teachers, inspectors of schools, etc., are undergoing hardships which would depress even the most virile energy ; their endeavours are deserving of all praise, but it is very difficult for a man to put forth his whole intellectual powers when he is faced with the incessant struggle to obtain daily bread for himself and his family. The successive augmentations of salaries have failed to keep pace with the rise in prices which is caused by the depreciation of the paper currency ; the State budget shows a constantly increasing deficit and the public services necessarily suffer.

"Owing to these causes the writers of scientific works are compelled to remain almost idle because there is no market for the books which they might wish to produce ; for the classes who provide readers for these books cannot pay the prices which the publishers are forced to demand. The result is a distressing falling-off in the splendid scientific and literary output of the days before the war. The drama forms a solitary exception, and some plays of real value have recently been produced in our theatres.

"Our public and private libraries are sinking into decay owing to their inability to purchase foreign books. Our teachers and educational staff are thereby cut off from communication with the scientific world abroad and are unable to keep touch with its progress ; they cannot subscribe to foreign periodicals issued in countries where the exchange stands high. It is only the German periodicals which are available to them, and even they are difficult to obtain. The same applies with regard to technical inventions, new instruments, and all foreign scientific apparatus. Medical institutions above all suffer from this intellectual isolation."

After alluding to the political difficulties, Count Apponyi concludes by urging the imperative need for his country, on the one hand, of receiving intellectual assistance, and on the other hand, of maintaining that "will to live" which — if economic restoration is not too long delayed — will enable Hungarian intellectual life to survive in spite of the unfavourable psychological conditions with which it has to contend.

II.

Efforts of Hungary

This firm resolve to save the intellectual life of Hungary, threatened with a disaster as complete as that which followed her defeat on Mohacs field, finds expression in the official statement of the Hungarian Government, from which we quote the following extract :

“We are working towards our goal by two methods. The first is to continue our intellectual work as intensively as possible in all the domains in which we are not dependent on material means. The second method is to utilise our limited resources in a manner best calculated to secure the co-operation of all the organs of our intellectual life, and thus to achieve the greatest possible output, while at the same time maintaining the standard of our higher education and of science and the arts in general, at all costs — even if our other cultural interests should suffer by this preference.”

It is true that in the Hungarian State budget the sums allocated to public worship and education now represent a smaller proportion of the total expenditure than was the case before the war. In 1913 this proportion was 6.7 %, in 1914-15 it was 7.2 %, in 1921-22 it was 4.23 % and in 1922-23 it was 4.61 %.

It should, however, be noted that the Ministry of Public Education, which is organised in sixteen sections, has effected very considerable internal economies in order to meet the most urgent requirements of the moment. The following table shows the allocation of expenditure in this Ministry in recent years :

	1913	1914-15	1921-22	1922-23
Universities and Higher Education	11.37 %	10.44 %	28.44 %	37.86 %
Subsidies to Scientific Organisations, Public Collections and Fine Arts	5.98 %	5.24 %	7.33 %	8.11 %
Popular Education	42.64 %	42.11 %	33.13 %	29.87 %
Other expenditure, including secondary and special education	40.01 %	42.21 %	31.10 %	29.16 %

The above table shows how great a transfer of credits has been effected to the benefit of scientific studies and higher education and at the cost of primary and secondary education. So great a sacrifice could only have been justified by the assumption that a slackening of effort in the latter domain would prove less disadvantageous in the long run than a lowering of the standard of scientific study, — a danger which it was desired to avoid at all costs.

Nevertheless, popular education has also made considerable progress during the last few years. The percentage of Hungarian nationals over six years of age who are able to read and write rose from 80.3 in 1910 to 84.3 in 1920 ; and there are grounds for hoping that the number of illiterates will be still further reduced. Similarly, the number of primary schools (6,386 in 1920-21, with 16,312 teachers and almost 1,000,000 pupils) and of various kinds of secondary schools (94 colleges, *i.e.* secondary schools for classical and secondary schools for modern subjects, 17 vocational schools, 32 secondary schools for girls — in all, 143 schools with 2,600 teachers and some 50,000 pupils) is relatively large, though almost 6 % of the children of school age are still receiving no school education, chiefly on account of the lack of schools.

The Ministry of Public Education has displayed particular activity in university matters (transfer of two universities ; organisation of a new Faculty in the University of Budapest).

We will deal with this question in closer detail in a special report on the establishments for higher education.

As the General Inspectorate of National Museums and Libraries has been abolished for the sake of economy, these institutions are now placed under the Ministry of Public Education. In pursuance of a law of 1922 the larger public national collections have been constituted as a distinct autonomous body known as "The University of Hungarian National Collections", which exercises its rights of autonomy through the agency of its Senate. The corporate body which has thus been created is entitled to accept donations and legacies. The object of this organisation is to interest the public in the larger national collections and to encourage gifts to libraries, archives and museums.

The development of libraries was greatly stimulated by a Ministerial Decree of 1923 which created a "Central Bibliographical Office for the Purchase and Exchange of Books". This institution draws up a general catalogue of the Hungarian libraries and affords facilities for the international exchanges which are referred to later on in this paper.

Efforts of this kind are necessarily limited by the economies which are demanded by the Ministry of Finance. Thus it has been necessary to abolish some of the national or subsidised institutions and, commencing from the school year 1923-24, the State has withdrawn the subsidies allocated to the independent Faculties of Law which are maintained by various religious denominations. The number of secondary schools has also been reduced for reasons of economy.

Finally, it has proved impossible to increase the number of scholarships and prizes. Scholarships amount, as a rule, to 300-1,000 crowns — the equivalent of 10-35 Swiss centimes. As the prizes granted by the University of Budapest only amounted to 100 or 200 crowns, they were raised, with the assistance of the Union of Higher Education, to 4,000 crowns ; but this is only equivalent to 1.20 Swiss francs. We are thus faced with the full effects of depreciation.

III.

International Relations

One result of this depreciation is that travelling scholarships, which are indispensable for exchanges of students, have lost all their value and would be inadequate for the expenses of a single day. During the last two years, the French Government has granted scholarships of 6,000 francs to 8-10 Hungarian students at the University of Paris and at the Free School of Political Science. The Rockefeller Foundation also grants three scholarships annually to Hungarian doctors.

The Ministry of Public Education points out that, in the present economic situation of Hungary, it is only through assistance of this nature that the rising generation of scholars can make personal acquaintance with foreign countries.

As evidence of the great importance which Hungary attaches to intellectual relations with foreign countries, it may be mentioned that she adhered without reservation to the Convention of Berne for the Protection of Artistic and Literary Property, and that she has just adhered, at the invitation of the Council of the League of Nations, to the Conventions of 1886 for the International Exchange of Publications.

The Hungarian Government is also endeavouring to found and maintain Hungarian scientific institutions in foreign countries. One of these institutions, which was founded at Berlin in 1915 has, however, a regular Chair and School in the University of that city, so that its expenses are paid by the Prussian State. It publishes the "Ungarische Jahrbücher" (a quarterly publication).

The Hungarian Historical Institute at Vienna, which is accommodated in a building belonging to the Hungarian State, has for its object to facilitate research in the archives of the Court of Vienna (Haus-Hof-und-Staats-Archiv), in particular the examination of documents of interest to Hungary.

The Hungarian Historical Institute at Rome will be housed in a villa which was presented to it in 1914 by Bishop Wm. Fraknoi ; owing to the war, this institute was unable to begin its work. Recently, the Italian Government has generously released the building from sequestration and the Directors, who have hitherto done their work in the Hungarian Academy of Science, are exerting themselves to the utmost to overcome the financial difficulties so that it may be possible to open the Institute next autumn, if only on a modest scale.

The Hungarian Institute at Constantinople was founded in 1917 with a view to enabling Hungarian experts to study the relations of Hungary with Byzantium and with Turkey, and to encourage intellectual relations between Hungarian and Turkish scholars. It had to suspend its activities in 1918, but negotiations are in progress with a view to the resumption of its work.

Negotiations are proceeding at Paris with a view to founding in France a Hungarian Scientific Institute to which it is hoped that the French Government will afford support. This institute is to be created in connection with the Chair of Hungarian Language and Literature, which is at present vacant, the last occupant having been transferred to another Chair. The whole Hungarian nation will feel deeply grateful if these negotiations reach a successful conclusion¹.

Finally, a Hungarian Institute is in process of foundation at Dorpat.

It would appear very desirable in the interests of the development of Hungarian scientific study that Chairs of Hungarian language and literature should also be created in other foreign universities, for instance, in the United States of America and in London.

With a view to encouraging and giving a systematic organisation to the intellectual relations between Hungary and other countries, a Hungarian Committee of Intellectual Co-operation has been created and serves as an intermediary between the Hungarian intellectual institutions and workers, on the one hand, and the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations, on the other.

This Hungarian Committee, which was constituted under the auspices of the Academy of Science, consists of eleven members of the Academy, including the Librarian and representatives of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Public Education, the Committee for the Insurance of the Scientific work of the Universities, the University of National Collections, and the Hungarian Association for the League of Nations.

This Committee transmits to the Secretariat of the International Committee requests received from Hungarian institutions for the exchange of books and other educational material, at the same time expressing the views of the Academy in regard to the requests and indicating the objects which Hungary would be able to offer in exchange. It assists the League of Nations Committee in its enquiry into the intellectual situation in Hungary and it also seeks to facilitate the exchanges of professors and students.

As regards the exchange of books, the Committee makes use of the Central Bibliographica Office, of which mention has already been made. The national collections, and all other collections which desire its services, also acquire their foreign books through the agency of this central institution ; the latter also acts as the national bureau for exchanges under the Conventions of 1886, and it undertakes the bibliographical registration of foreign books and periodicals in Hungarian libraries.

¹ With a view to facilitating scientific relations between Hungary and France, a periodical entitled "Revue des Etudes hongroises et finno-ougriennes" has just been founded (published by Ed. Champion, Paris).

The object of this quarterly publication, which is being produced under the auspices of the Hungarian Academy of Science, is to give publicity to the chief achievements attained in Hungarian and also, to some extent, in the Finnish language, philology and historiography ; it seeks, by means of a central organ published in French, to contribute the results of researches in these fields to the common fund of scientific knowledge. It is making a special study of historical and literary relations between France and Hungary.

The Hungarian Ministry of Public Education attaches special importance to the exchanges of professors and students, but it considers that Hungary, with her depreciated currency, cannot at present offer complete reciprocity. It has been possible, in several individual cases, to find a practical solution of the difficulty. Thus, a certain number of English students who were studying in Hungary during their holidays were accommodated in boarding schools which were unoccupied at the time. It would be of great assistance to the exchange system if foreign countries would send some of their professors to take a course of at least one term in one of the Hungarian universities ; if these teachers continued to receive the salaries paid to them in their own countries their expenses would be easily covered, owing to the favourable situation of the exchange for foreigners.

IV.

Conclusions

In the statement of the Minister of Public Education it is pointed out that no radical improvement can be effected except by means of the loan which Hungary is seeking to obtain from foreign countries, but that the support of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations may nevertheless prove of inestimable value in palliating the evils of the present crisis and in creating the psychological conditions which are essential for the development of Hungarian intellectual life.

In the view of the Hungarian Government, the Committee could achieve this object by the following means :

- (1) By declaring that Hungarian intellectual life is in need of the moral and material assistance of the League of Nations.
 - (2) By meeting any requests forwarded to it by the committee formed under the auspices of the Hungarian Academy.
 - (3) By developing the international exchange of books and periodicals through the agency of the Central Bibliographical Office, and by using its good offices with the highly civilised countries to induce them to accept, in exchange for their publications, books which might not be of the same value, either as regards quantity or quality.
 - (4) By facilitating the international exchanges of students and especially of professors, in accordance with the suggestions made earlier in this paper.
 - (5) By facilitating the organisation of Hungarian scientific institutions in foreign universities. The Hungarian Government would gladly subsidise any corresponding institutions in Hungarian universities.
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ANNEX.

LITERARY PRODUCTION IN HUNGARY BETWEEN 1913 AND 1923

In making a comparative study of literary production, account must be taken of three important statistical factors ; namely, (1) the number of volumes published ; (2) the number of copies printed of each volume ; and (3) the number of pages of each volume.

The classification of books published in Hungary in the different branches of literature is shown in the following table, which appeared in the "Börsenblatt für den Deutschen Buchhandel", No. 71, 1923 (Leipzig), supplemented by data for the year 1922 collected by Dr Charles Erdösi :

Production of Hungarian books in 1913, 1921 and 1922, classified according to branches of literature

<i>Branches of literature.</i>	<i>Annual production</i>		
	1913	1921	1922
Theology	133	113	84
Sciences, literature and arts :			
<i>a)</i> philosophy	52	21	12
<i>b)</i> philology	27	34	19
<i>c)</i> natural science and mathematics	35	41	34
<i>d)</i> law, political science and statistics	122	71	13
<i>e)</i> laws and commentaries	127	80	55
<i>f)</i> medicine and hygiene	67	16	39
<i>g)</i> geography, ethnography	21	7	30
<i>h)</i> practical science, commerce, technical industry	155	121	73
<i>i)</i> history and biography	91	35	160
<i>j)</i> rhetoric	14	3	—
<i>k)</i> social science	61	39	48
<i>l)</i> occult science	11	5	9
<i>m)</i> encyclopædic publications	9	—	—
<i>n)</i> literature	34	51	20
<i>o)</i> drawing, painting, sculpture	16	15	17
Total	826	539	529
Text-books of instruction	294	258	365
Popular Education	301	122	22
Belles-Lettres	419	665	559
Children's books	65	111	150
Works on current events and miscellaneous works	311	44	287
Sports	13	4	6
Music	295	354	233

This table shows that the falling-off in the number of publications is not as serious as might have been expected in view of the economic situation. It must, however, be noted that, as a rule, the only increase has been in regard to school text-books — the stock of which had been exhausted during the war, children's books, and above all, "belles-lettres"; the increase in the latter must be ascribed to the great stimulus which the war gave to reading throughout the world: and this encouraged publishers to intensify production, in many cases at a great loss to themselves. On the other hand, it will be observed that there is a great falling-off in the total number of books published, particularly as regards scientific, literary and artistic works, a fact which is very detrimental to intellectual life.

Moreover, in considering the above table, account must be taken of the number of copies printed and the number of pages in each volume. These data could not of course be shown in a table of this kind, but they can be deduced from the following examples:

a) *Encyclopædic Literature.*

In 1910 the publication had been commenced of an important encyclopædia entitled "The Great Révai Lexicon" (Révai Nagy Lexikona) which was to have run to eighteen volumes; the price had been fixed at 18 crowns per volume. When the war broke out, fourteen volumes of this work had appeared in editions of 32,000 copies per volume. During the war, publication of this encyclopædia was suspended. The publisher has just decided to go on with the last four volumes, but he only thought himself justified in printing one volume — the fifteenth — in the first instance, and only 10,000 copies of that volume; and yet he only succeeded in disposing of 5,000 copies though it was in the interests of all the purchasers of former volumes to complete the set.

In 1914 the publication of the "Library of Civilisation" (Műveltség Könyvtár) had been begun. The object of this series of large illustrated volumes was to make readers acquainted with the chief branches of knowledge expounded by the most eminent Hungarian men of science. The first eleven volumes were issued in editions of 20,000 copies per volume. It proved impossible to publish the twelfth and last volume owing to the cost of printing and to the lack of subscribers, so that this important encyclopædia is destined to remain incomplete.

A digest of all the Hungarian laws, under the title of "Codex Hungaricus", was commenced in 1911, and supplements containing the new laws were issued in each succeeding year. This important work had extended over ten volumes printed in editions of 4,000 copies per volume; for the volumes of the years 1918-20 the numbers printed had to be reduced to 2,500 copies, and in 1921 publication had to be suspended altogether.

b) *Belles-Lettres.*

It has become utterly impossible to publish the works of the most famous Hungarian authors. The writings of Maurice Jókai are completely exhausted and no publisher would take the risk of bringing out another edition. The works of Coloman Mikszáth and of Baron Joseph Eötvös have disappeared from the market for several years past.

As regards the more popular contemporary authors, the works of Francis Herczeg and of Coloman Csathò were formerly published and circulated to the extent of 5,500 copies per volume; the present editions only run to 2,500 copies and it will take many years to find purchasers for them. The works of Nicolas Surányi were formerly printed and sold in editions of 700 copies; the latest edition only amounts to 1,650 copies.

In 1914 a "Library of Standard Novels" (Klasszikus Regénytár) was commenced with a view to making known the great masterpieces of universal literature (e.g. the works of Balzac, Oliver, Dickens, Daudet, Dumas, Dostoievsky, Flaubert, Anatole France, Scott, Stendhal, Mackerray, Tolstoi, Turgeniev, Zola, etc.). Before the war, these volumes were issued in

editions of 10,000-14,000 copies and 8-10 volumes were brought out every year. This series was suspended during the war, but publication was resumed in 1918, the issue amounting to 6,000 copies of each volume per annum ; the present rate of publication is only one volume per year in an edition of 3,000 copies.

The Athenæum Library (Athenaeum Könyvtár), a similar enterprise of a more popular character, somewhat on the same lines as the "Nelson Library", was started in 1912. On an average, twelve volumes were published each year in editions of 30,000 copies ; after the war there was a sudden decline and in 1922 the publisher was obliged to suspend the issue although the series had already run to 85 volumes.

Another publication of an even more popular character, issued at the rate of one crown per number, was commenced in 1917 under the title of "Novels at Popular Prices" (Olcsó Regény) ; the numbers of this series were brought out in editions of 12,000 copies. In this case again there was a rapid decline after 1918. In 1922 a few numbers were brought out in editions of 6,000 copies, but, since the issue of the 73rd number, publication has had to be suspended.

In 1915, an edition of very cheap novels was launched under the title of "Books for the Millions" (Milliók Könyve), some 180,000 copies being issued every fortnight. At present only one issue of 26,000 copies per volume of this edition is published every six weeks.

Another literary enterprise is bringing out small pamphlets on the lines of "Reclam's Universal-Bibliothek" under the title of "The Hungarian Library" (Magyar Könyvtár). In 1914, 250,000 of these pamphlets were printed, of which 66,253 were sold. In 1923 51,500 copies were printed and 11,131 were sold.

(c) *Children's Books, Almanachs, Popular Books and Dictionaries.*

Children's books play a very important part in the book trade in all countries, for they are the presents which children value most highly. Under this heading it will be best not to give the data for any single book, but for the whole production of a publishing enterprise of this kind. In the years prior to the war a single firm — one of the chief publishing houses in Hungary — disposed of some 200-250,000 copies of 100 different publications each year. At present it brings out not more than 30 such works, in a moderate edition of which it is able to sell only 30-35,000 copies per annum.

What has been said above is equally applicable to dictionaries. Formerly, the sale of small dictionaries for general purposes was about 8-10,000 copies per year ; the sale has now fallen to 1,000-1,500 copies per year.

Almanachs are a form of literature which satisfies the most elementary requirements of the public. It is, therefore, both interesting and instructive to note that one publisher sold in 1913, 450,000 copies of 52 different types of almanachs, comprising 276 pages per volume. In 1922, the same publisher sold a total of 233,000 copies of 19 different types, comprising 73 pages per volume.

(d) *Scientific Literature.*

It is in this domain that the outlook is most depressing and that the decline has been the most disastrous. As will be seen from the table given above, there has been a terrible falling off in the number of works issued. The publication of university manuals meets with almost insuperable obstacles ; indeed it has become impossible, unless by the intervention of some special agency, such as aid proffered by devotees of science, or relief afforded by the State and even in such cases the books have to be issued in editions of 1,000/1,500 copies instead of 2,000/3,000 as formerly, and the publisher endeavours to keep the number of pages down to the lowest possible figure. It is practically impossible to find a publisher for a book of more than 800 pages, or for an illustrated work. The publication of professional legal works must

be regarded as completely at a standstill ; and medical literature finds difficulty in maintaining its existence:

In this field again, we note that the editions which aim at popularising knowledge find the readiest market. These editions have played an important rôle and have done much for the development of education in general.

In 1911 a popular edition of this kind was launched under the title of "The World Library" (Világkönyvtár). This "Library" published the most famous works of the great authors and scientists of the world, *e.g.* Shaw, Carlyle, Ostwald, Boelsche, Darwin, Bergson, Brandes, Walter Pater, Menchikoff, Spencer, Macaulay, Nietzsche, etc. Before the war eight to ten volumes of this library were issued annually in editions of 5,000/10,000 copies. After 1918 these volumes were only printed in editions of 3,000/4,000 copies, and not more than two or three volumes were published each year. Since 1921 only one volume has appeared each year, and the edition has been limited to 2,000/3,000 copies.

An even more popular edition, at a very low price (40/80 centimes) is the "Modern Library" (Modern Könyvtár). It was first published in 1903, and developed so rapidly that in 1916 volumes were being printed in editions of 24,000 copies. Since that date the decline has been very rapid, and in 1922 the publisher was obliged to suspend publication, after making a final issue of 1,600 copies.

An edition in the form of small pamphlets sold at 50 centimes each has appeared for the past twenty-five years under the title of "Pocket Library of Science" (Tudományos zsebkönyvtár). These pamphlets contain 64 to 80 pages each, and consist of treatises on the different branches of science, adapted to the intellectual standards of students, of the less educated public, of the working classes, etc. The issue amounted to 5,000/6,000 copies per pamphlet and several pamphlets ran to four, five and even six editions. Since 1918 it has been found impossible to bring out any more of these pamphlets, though the stock of more than half the previous issues was completely exhausted, and they could not be re-published ; the few numbers which it was considered absolutely necessary to publish were issued in editions of not more than 2,000/3,000 copies.

One of the most important publishing firms is the "Saint Stephen's Publishing Co." (Szent István Társaság) ; in 1913 this company published ten scientific works, containing more than 3,000 pages, and printed in editions of 30,000 copies per volume ; 25,000 were sold during the same year. In 1922 this company published seventeen scientific works, containing nearly 8,800 pages, but it was only possible to issue 17,000 copies and only 8,500 were disposed of.

e) Reviews.

Numerous learned societies have been founded in Hungary, and it is these societies which publish scientific reviews. The falling-off in this form of production is illustrated by the following figures :

	In 1913	In 1922
<i>Academic Review</i> , organ of the Hungarian Academy of Science . . .	746 pp.	363 pp.
<i>Universal Philological Review</i> , organ of the Philological Society of Budapest.	808 »	140 »
<i>Geographical Publications</i> , organ of the Hungarian Geographical Society	586 »	176 »
<i>Athenæum</i> , organ of the Hungarian Philosophical Society	454 »	203 » (In 1921)
<i>The Hungarian Language</i> , organ of the Hungarian Linguistic Society	480 »	220 »
<i>Hungarian Pedagogic Sciences</i> , organ of the Hungarian Pedagogic Society	668 »	122 »
<i>The Centuries</i> , organ of the Hungarian Historical Society.	806 »	306 »

	In 1913	In 1922
<i>Historical Review</i> , publication by the Hungarian Academy of Science	640 pp.	196 pp. (In 1921)
<i>Numismatic Review</i> , organ of the Hungarian Numismatic Society.	150 »	60 »
<i>Botanical Review</i> , published by the Hungarian Society for Natural Sciences	254 »	64 » (In 1921)
<i>Chemical Review</i> , published by the Hungarian Society for Natural Sciences	192 »	68 » (In 1921)
<i>Review of Mathematics and Natural Science</i> , published by the Hungarian Society for Natural Sciences.	787 »	328 »
<i>Mathematic and Physical Notes</i> , organ of the Mathematical and Physical Society.	445 »	110 »
<i>Hungarian Bibliographical Review</i> , organ of the Széchenyi Library	518 »	240 »

However, it was not only scientific reviews, but also those dealing with art and subjects of general interest which were obliged to suspend publication ; thus the beautiful artistic review "Art" (Művészet), of which 7,200 copies were printed in 1914, has since been suspended, leaving a noticeable gap. The review entitled "Hungarian Decorative Art" (Magyar Iparművészet), which has been appearing for twenty-four years, has been obliged to dispense with illustrations of all sorts. Nearly all the reviews of general interest have been wound up, and only the "Budapest Review" (Budapesti Szemle), which was founded a hundred and fifty years ago, continues to flourish, thanks to the financial support which it receives from the Hungarian Academy of Science. It is, however, only a quarter of its former size.

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All the above data show that literary production in Hungary has to compete with most serious difficulties ; the production of scientific books is on the eve of extinction and the whole scientific life of Hungary is, in consequence, threatened with disaster.

We have not yet mentioned the fact that scientific works do not provide their authors with any income whatever ; as a rule, it is not possible to publish the results of scientific research at all. Scientific criticism and the formation of a new generation of scientists have thus been rendered impossible, and even the publication of short essays in the scientific reviews presents almost insurmountable difficulties. Moreover, owing to the differences in the rates of exchange, it is even harder for the public libraries of Hungary than for private individuals to acquire new scientific publications which appear in foreign countries.

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The causes of a crisis fraught with such serious consequences for the production of scientific works in Hungary are as follows :

1. The unprecedented increase in the cost price.

The paper technically known as "famentes" (paper without wood fibre) cost, per gross kilogram :

In 1913.	52 cent.
In 1921, month of February.	58 crowns
» » » May.	70 »
» » » September.	78 »
» » » November.	92 »
» 1922 » March.	105 »
» » » May.	140 »
» » » September.	285 »
» » » December	365 »

Its cost is thus increased 700-fold.

The minimum weekly wage of a skilled workman was :

In 1913	35 crowns
» 1921, month of February	585 »
» » » August	865 »
» » » October	1,040 »
» » » December	1,300 »
» 1922 » February	1,385 »
» » » April	1,717 »
» » » June	1,914 »
» » » August	3,225 »
» » » October	5,059 »
» » » November	6,152 »

The wages of a compositor have thus increased 175 times.

The increase in the authors' royalties has been on a much more modest scale — an additional proof that the standard of living of intellectual workers has fallen far below that of manual workers. In the case of literary works, the author's royalties are 10 % of the selling price of the book, and as the selling price is below the gold parity (at the end of 1922 the index number was 150), it follows that the author's royalties also remain far below the former level, with a result that to-day no author in Hungary can maintain himself unless he possesses other sources of income than his royalties.

As regards scientific works, the situation is even worse.

Text-books and university manuals are still published from time to time. The author's royalties are fixed in such cases either at 10 % of the price of the books sold, or at 5,000 kr. per 16 pages (1.5 Swiss francs), as compared with the pre-war figure of 500 kr. (525 Swiss francs). Thus, the author's royalties are only ten times their former amount.

2. The most lucrative enterprises, from the publisher's point of view, used always to be literary and popular publications issued in serial form. In such cases the profit increases in geometric proportion with the number of copies printed, and in former times it was the profit in such enterprises which made it possible to publish scientific works possessing no interest except for a limited number of people, and of which only a limited number of copies could be printed.

It will be seen from the facts given above that enterprises of this kind no longer offer any return, or at least that the profits have been immensely reduced ; it is chiefly for this reason that it is so difficult to find publishers for scientific works ; but there is also another reason of equal importance. In consequence of the territorial losses of Hungary, the public — never a very large body — to which Hungarian scientific publications made their appeal, has suffered still further diminution ; moreover, these scientific works were read for the most part by the educated middle class, consisting of university men and officials with fixed incomes, and it is precisely this class which has been most seriously impoverished in consequence of the economic crisis. The fact that the section of the public which formerly purchased scientific works has so greatly diminished has caused a reduction in the number of copies printed, and this in turn has led to a considerable rise in the cost price per copy. Hungarian intellectual life is thus caught in a vicious circle, from which it cannot extricate itself by its own endeavours.

3. These difficulties are aggravated by the fact that it is now impossible — or at any rate hazardous — to despatch Hungarian books to places in the territories which were detached from Hungary by the Treaty of Peace.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO
THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series
INTELLECTUAL LIFE
IN
VARIOUS COUNTRIES

JAPAN

The Use and Study of Foreign Languages in Japan

by

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NOTE

The sole object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing these reports is to draw attention to the questions of organisation and intellectual co-operation which arise in relation to each of the subjects dealt with. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but merely to draw the reader's attention to them and to provide an opening for fresh suggestions.

CONTENTS

	Page.
ART I. THE INTRODUCTION OF CHINESE WORDS IN ANCIENT TIMES.	
I. The Isolated Position of the Japanese Language	5
II. The Introduction of Chinese Words	6
III. The Adoption of Chinese Loan Words	7
IV. The Assimilation of Chinese Words	10
V. Words of Hindu Origin in Japanese Vocabulary	11
VI. The Effect of the Introduction of the Chinese Language.	12
VII. The Use of Ideographs	14
VIII. Restrictions on the Use of Ideographs.	15
ART II. THE STUDY AND USE OF WESTERN LANGUAGES IN MODERN TIMES.	
IX. The Dutch Advance in the Sixteenth Century.	17
X. The Increasing Demand for Western Languages.	18
XI. Two Methods of Teaching a Foreign Language	20
XII. Schools for Foreign Languages	20
XIII. The Place of Foreign Languages in Secondary Education.	23
XIV. General Diffusion of Foreign Languages	24
XV. The Linguistic Inaptitude of the Race.	26
XVI. The Effect of the Study of Western Languages	28

THE USE AND STUDY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN JAPAN

A STUDY IN CULTURAL INTERNATIONALISM

by

Inazo Nitobé.

PART I.

THE INTRODUCTION OF CHINESE WORDS IN ANCIENT TIMES.

I. *The Isolated Position of the Japanese Language.*

The Japanese language has as yet found no kinship with any known linguistic system, not even with that of its immediate neighbours -- Chinese, Manchurians or Koreans. Ever since Laproth first advanced the idea in 1820, many philologists have placed it in the somewhat choate group variously known as Scythian, Turanian or Ural-Altaic ; but even with this classification scientists are not all agreed. Or are the Japanese descendants of Malay immigrants? Some customs and racial traits make such a theory plausible, but no linguistic connection is discernible. Whatever similarities one may observe between the Japanese on the one side and the Hellenic, Persian or Hittite language on the other, their affinities are by no means sufficiently established to warrant the assumption of a definite relationship. Indeed, the rational and scientific search for the ancestry of the Japanese language and race is only just beginning.

Emerson called language "fossil poetry", but, like paleontological specimens, very few languages have come down to us intact, either in form or in constitution. A large number have at the barest outlines or fragmentary parts preserved, giving only the faintest clue to their original forms or to the catastrophes they have undergone. Japanese seems at present to be an example of poetry so badly petrified as to be unclassifiable in the general order of linguistic sciences. Moreover, no fossil remains can, from the very nature of their formation, be pure. Since petrification means the deposit of foreign bodies in the cavities of organisms, all existing languages, except perhaps the most primitive, are infiltrated with alien materials.

When the Japanese came to their present islands — whence they came being a question reserved for future investigation — they found a number of aboriginal tribes, some of whom welcomed, while others opposed, their settlement. How much the Japanese language was affected by contact and conflict with the autochthons, we have as yet no means of ascertaining. Only once, the Ainu, whom some scholars identify as Caucasian, survives in small numbers in the north. Did other tribes, Kuma-so (Cave Bears), Tsuchi-kumo (Earth Spiders) and others, belong to the same race? Hypothesis has thrown no convincing light on this problem. We can trace, as Professors Chamberlain and Nagata have done, a number of geographical names to their etymology, but otherwise the Ainu is silent in Japanese speech. What original Japanese is like is an enquiry which has only lately been started in a truly objective method. A huge quantity of rubbish, accumulated for centuries by prejudice, pride, chauvinism and delight in Japonomania, has only obscured the question. Possibly some light may be acquired from the study of the hitherto neglected dialect spoken by the Loochoo islanders. Not improbably the search for primitive Japanese may end in the discovery of multifarious branches of linguistic genealogy, no less complex than that of the English language, whose ancestry seems to be

branching wider and wider as paleolinguistic researches extend. If the Japanese race is very mixed in its origin, as anthropologists and craniologists assure us, their language could hardly remain pure.

When we speak in these pages of the Japanese language, we shall not go beyond the form of which we have examples in writing, dating back to the early part of the eighth century. This is certainly not very old, being only contemporaneous with the Venerable Bede.

II. *The Introduction of Chinese Words.*

Very early in their history and, indeed, before history came to be recorded, the intercourse between China, Korea and Japan had begun, the triangular relations reminding us of those of Egypt, Crete and Greece. China had the oldest and the most advanced civilisation, and Korea thrived under her intellectual and political guidance. Later, Korea passed on its imported arts and sciences to Japan, when she was just emerging from the bronze age.

The cultural penetration of China — for of other kinds of penetration in any period of Japanese history we have no trace — was in full swing as early as the fourth century A.D., China being then under the rule of the famous Tang dynasty. In art and literature, in philosophy and law, in administration and handicrafts, Chinese lessons and precepts proved to be the most powerful moulding influences. These were exercised without compulsion of any kind. It was an instance of an intrinsically higher culture benignantly and automatically flowing into the needy lower levels.

The first dawn of Japanese literature is therefore strongly tinged with Sinicism. Japanese writers adopted and imbibed Chinese ideographs and phrases without much modification. To a large extent the Chinese loan words were indispensable, as there were no Japanese equivalents; but it was not always necessity that actuated the borrowing. Pedantry not infrequently acted as a motive. Whoever examines the early literature of Japan will be struck at the abject intellectual thralldom of the Japanese writers. This is most conspicuous from the middle of the eighth to the beginning of the tenth century A.D. — a period during which whatever remained of native literature was “banished from the court” and “exposed to the fashionable rivalry of Chinese scholars”¹. The loan words greatly enriched Japan’s verbal stock, but affected little the structure of her native language. There came into use practically two linguistic systems — the vernacular, which we shall call Yamato (ancient name for Japan), and the Chinese — the latter erudite. This linguistic mixture has continued until the present day and is comparable to the mixture of classical words in a modern European tongue. But in the case of Japanese there has been this disadvantage — that the introduction of Chinese words was effected by the use of Chinese pictographs and ideographs, instead of a simpler phonetic system. A Chinese priest, Shen Kung, of the third century A.D., invented an alphabet of sixteen letters in order to transcribe Buddhist scriptures from Sanskrit, though later in the sixth century, under the Liang dynasty, the number was increased to thirty-six. This system did not come into general use in China itself, neither was it introduced into Japan.

It is a characteristic feature of Japanese imitation, perhaps no more so than of the old Hellenic, that any idea introduced from abroad is in a short course of time so adapted to native taste and sense of propriety that it assumes a new form, and that any imported alien material is soon so re-modelled as to obscure its origin. How did Japan react against the introduction of Chinese learning? In the beginning the island nation was bewildered by the countless host of invading letters, swarming like locusts from the Continent, and its genius seemed crushed under the ponderous weight of unfamiliar words from over the sea.

In speaking of the Chinese sources of Japanese culture, high tribute must be paid to the part

¹ The fate of the Japanese tongue and literature finds a parallel in that of the English after the Norman Conquest, of course with this difference — that there was no Chinese conquest in Japan. See GREEN’S *History of the English People*, Ch. III.

played by Korea as an intermediary in this civilising process. Indeed, not a few phases of the Continental culture had undergone modifications in the peninsula before they were transplanted to the Island Realm ; so that one finds among special terms connected with administration and arts no small number of words of Korean origin. It is to be regretted that the Aramean syllabary (*En-mun*), then in vogue in Korea, did not simultaneously find its way further east.

That a large number of Koreans had reached Japan in pre-historic times is quite patent to ethnologists — even the earliest historical documents make mention of their immigration. From time to time they sought refuge in Japan or were transported under compulsion and were often settled in segregated communities to pursue their special crafts and ways of living. Largely consisting of artisans, and because of their segregation, their influence on Japanese language must have been small and local. The better educated were drafted for clerical work into the services of the court and of the nobility, and of such the linguistic qualification demanded was Chinese. Whenever ancient chronicles speak of the introduction of Chinese books or characters, they relate that some Korean dignitaries brought these as gifts to the Japanese court. When it is said that the part played by Korea in the history of Far Eastern civilisation is very much like that of Crete in the dawn of European culture, the incalculable importance of its mission may be easily surmised.

III. *The Adoption of Chinese Loan Words.*

The relations between Japan and China were almost exclusively cultural, and only slightly commercial or political ; hence there was little actual contact between the two peoples in early historical times. The Chinese or Koreans who came to Japan were comparatively few in number and they were priests, savants or political refugees or parties of artisans, and living among our people. Even though they were sometimes segregated, they were soon merged with the native population. The few Japanese who went to the Asiatic continent were students. Thus Chinese influences were exerted almost exclusively through books, that is, through the written language, and hence there was little or no occasion for the colloquial, but a thorough mastery of ideographs was required. It was an education through the eyes and not through the ears.

In the face of this overwhelming legion of Chinese word-characters, what could the Japanese do ? These ingenious devices, used and polished by centuries of learning and endowed with mysterious powers, could well overawe a small people lacking in literary tradition or a strong national solidarity.

And yet not entirely did the Japanese succumb to the literary onslaught — else their native language would have been swept into eternal silence. They made an effort to utilise the imported article as a vehicle for their own tongue. There were two ways of accomplishing this : (1) One was to employ Chinese characters for the conveyance of the different sounds used in Japanese speech, *i.e.*, to convert a limited number of ideographs into phonograms ; (2) the other was to read the characters *à la japonaise*, *i.e.*, as symbols for Japanese words, ignoring their Chinese pronunciation.

The achievement of the first task was indeed onerous and perplexing, for it meant the selection out of a vast mass of Chinese sounds of about 3,867¹, only 109 of which could satisfy the phonetic need of Old Japanese. There were always half-a-dozen, and sometimes two or three dozen, ideographs that could severally be chosen to convey a single Japanese sound. The first literary works of the eighth century were written in these phonograms, and as different characters are employed in different places for the same sound their perusal requires the patience and ingenuity of a Champollion or a de Rougé. It is edifying to notice that the same experiment was made elsewhere. Dr. Taylor gives the following instance : “The Pehlevi (the central

¹ This is the number given by Dr. MARSHMAN, cited by Taylor. *The Alphabet*, Vol. I, p. 32.

stem of the Iranian alphabet) proves to be not a mixed language but only a mixed script. We have already seen how the Semitic Assyrians, adopting the cuneiform characters invented by the primitive Turanian people of Babylonia, used them partly as phonograms or symbols of sounds, and also as signs of thoughts or ideograms, which developed into logograms or symbols of words. A somewhat similar process occurred when the Aryan Persians adopted a Semitic alphabet. When Persian was written by the Aramean scribes, they employed the Semitic letters to spell the Persian words, and also optionally used the accustomed graphic representation of Semitic words as logograms to denote the equivalent Persian words”¹.

If the Nordic peoples found the Roman alphabet unsatisfactory, as it has “at no time represented any European language with much precision, because it was an importation adapted in a somewhat rough and ready fashion to represent sounds different from those which it represented outside Europe”², the Japanese found the Chinese language bewildering in the abundance of its sounds which only trained ears could distinguish.

To make “confusion worse confounded” in the selection of appropriate sound-signs, Chinese phonetics had changed in the course of their history and differed also in different parts of China, so that a letter might be pronounced in several ways — and who was to judge which was correct? When we consider that a large part of Chinese learning came to us through Korean teachers, we find another cause for phonetic variation and for Japanese embarrassment. It was like learning French from a German who had studied it in Spain!

How to bring out of this chaos of words and sounds any order was the immediate task to undertake in adapting Chinese symbols to the requirements of the Japanese language. The first step in this enterprise was to standardise the sound-signs, and this was accomplished sometime about the eighth century by the device of a syllabary. This syllabary, called *I-ro-ha*, from its first three letters, contains forty-seven in all, five of which are vowels and the rest consonantal digraphs or syllables. The arrangement of letters is unique. Other alphabets and syllabaries are classified in one of four orders — phonologic, morphologic, ideologic or chronologic³; but the *I-ro-ha* is a sort of acrostic composition using the forty-seven characters. Read in combinations of seven and five syllables, it constitutes a poem.

For memorising the *I-ro-ha*, the syllables are put in sets of sevens except the last, the seventh, which consists of five. The following lines give the original poetical form (with slight modifications made by diacritical signs) with a literal translation:

*Iro wa nihohedo
Chiri nuru wo!
Waga yo lare zo
Tune naran ?
Wuwi no oku-yama
Kyo koele,
Asaki yume miji
Ehi mo sezu.*

Colours, gleam as they may,
How they blow away!
Who in this world of ours
Lasts for aye?
The deep mountains of phenomenal being
We’ve crossed this day.
No more shallow dreams we see
Nor shall we inebriate be.

Though it is attributed to a priest, Kukai, posthumously named Kobo, it seems more probable that it is a production gradually worked out by many minds. We see in the *I-ro-ha* an illustration of the conjoint work, the international intellectual co-operation, as it were, of three nationalities — a Japanese poem written in Chinese characters expressing sentiments instilled by Hindoo Buddhism.

The *I-ro-ha* does not by any means completely exhaust the phonetic resources of our people. By resorting to diacritical signs we can increase our consonants. For example, by using certain signs surds can be changed into sonants — *ka* into *ga*, *la* into *da*, *sa* into *za*. The phonograms

¹ *The Alphabet*, Vol. II. p. 239.

² PETER GILES, *Encyclopedia Britannica*, Art. “Alphabet”.

³ TAYLOR: *The Alphabet*, Vol. I, p. 188.

being selected, the next step was to abbreviate them for purposes of writing. This process consisted in merely picking out the least complex component of phonograms, and, thanks to the monosyllabic character of the Chinese words, the selection of right symbols was comparatively an easy matter,

If the invention of the Phoenician alphabet was the *deformation*, as a recent writer called it¹, of Egyptian hieroglyphics, the letters of our syllabary, of which there are two forms, the *Katakana* and the *Hira-kana*, are most truly the deformation of, rather than the derivation from or simplification of, Chinese phonograms. Not content with the invention of *Kana* letters, a number of ideographs for genuinely native expression were also coined. This was the equivalent of the North-European device of diacritical symbols to extend the scope of the Roman alphabet.

As to the second purpose, namely, that of utilising ideographs for the representation of Japanese words, it was accomplished by giving them the sound of Japanese words. It is like writing “*i.e.*” (*id est*) and reading it “that is”. An ideograph representing *man* is pronounced in Chinese “*lung*”, but the Japanese read it “*hilo*”. If the adoption of Chinese characters had ended here, it would not have been an unhappy solution of the language problem ; but it went much further. Besides giving to ideographs the sound of Japanese words, we retained or tried to retain the Chinese pronunciation of each character ; but, failing in tonic mimicry, we followed the pronunciation in our own way, after two or three (Han, Wu or Korean) models. The result is that we read Chinese in a manner resembling the reading of Greek or Latin according to the English, the Continental or any other method advanced by classical scholars — any one of these ways probably unintelligible to Sophocles or Virgil. One can easily distinguish *Kango*, Chinese words pronounced according to the usage of the Han dynasty, from the native Japanese ; for the former are almost invariably monosyllabic, while the latter are rarely so. I dare say that the economy of expressing an idea by a single sound was to the Japanese a strong temptation to use the *Kango* without taking the trouble of translation. We are doing the same thing now by culling a large number of short words from European sources — *e.g.*, ink, match, pen, stick, *pain*, *chapeau*, etc. In pronouncing Chinese ideographs there are no hard-and-fast rules. Usually, when two or three are connected together they are pronounced *à la chinoise*, while, when a single character is used, it is read *à la japonaise*. Take the term *Kokka* (the *State*), which consists of two Chinese characters *koku* (country) and *ka* (house) : but when these components are used separately they are respectively read in Japanese *kuni* and *iye*.

But why words of strictly national origin — words for which the Chinese afford no exact equivalence — when written in ideographs should be given *Kango* pronunciation instead of retaining their archaic sounds, is not even asked by the curious. I refer particularly to such words as Emperor, “*Mikado*” in old Japanese, which nowadays is read *à la chinoise*, “*Tenno*” ; or “*Kashiko-dokoro*”, the ancestral shrine in the Emperor’s court, designated “*Kensho*” in *Kango*. To take but one more example — to the legendary foundress of our reigning dynasty, “*Ama-terasu*”, the Heaven-shining, is more commonly given the name “*Tensho*”. Sinification carried out to such an extent may serve as a proof of the complete domiciliation of Chinese words : for even a chauvinistic ear fails to detect anything offensive in *Kango* sounds. Will ever the time come when Old Japanese will fly its colours in revolt against Chinese dominance ? We shall come back to this question later on.

One must acknowledge as a positive gain in the use of *Kango* that, by stringing a number of words together, one can coin any new term, especially as Chinese words can be changed in intention and extension by the usual process of generalisation or specialisation ; hence an entirely new life can be infused into them by fresh combinations. In this respect Chinese is as convenient and effective as German. Such a formidable word as *Schulkindergesundheitsuntersuchungskommission* can be most faithfully rendered by *Gakudo-eisei-chosa-iin* !

¹ VENDRYES : *Le Langage*, p. 381.

IV. The Assimilation of Chinese Words.

After what has been stated, it might seem that the Japanese could have adopted to better advantage the whole Chinese language without modification. The reason why this could not be done lies in the fact of the totally different construction of the two languages. In Chinese grammar there are no inflections or particles to show the relations of two or more words, whereas in Japanese there are a number of copulative syllables, known as *le-ni-o-ha*, which serve the object of what Vendryes calls "morphème"¹. We therefore helped ourselves most freely to Chinese words, but retained our own grammar. Hence the usual method in Japanese writing is to employ Chinese for the principal words of the sentence, and to link these by Japanese particles which indicate cases and tenses. The more difficult of the Chinese letters in a sentence have their Japanese equivalents in sound or meaning put by their side in small *Kana*. So thoroughly, however, have Chinese letters (words) been assimilated and their meaning absorbed by us, that poems written in them under strict rules of rhyme and numbers could be sung with Japanese intonation — an intonation which took no notice of their original euphony. So close is the parallel between this and the case of "the restorers of Grecian learning in the fifteenth century" in Italy, as described by a master hand, that I am tempted to cite the following quotation :

"Of the power of the Greek accents they were ignorant ; and those musical notes which, from an Attic tongue and to an Attic ear, must have been the secret soul of harmony, were to their eyes, as to our own, no more than mute or unmeaning marks, in prose superfluous and troublesome in verse."²

Can one imagine a greater outrage to a language than that its best songs should be shorn of their cadence and harmony, and that their words should be uttered in notes discordant to the authors' ear ? This is what has actually been done by the Japanese to the Celestial tongue. To the ideograph itself, held sacred by the Chinese, we have not always shown respect. We have mutilated some for brevity's sake and added to their category as convenience demanded. The late Mr. Fukusawa, in translating "steam" could not find an exact Chinese equivalent in one short word, whereupon he invented a character now used in China as in Japan. It is a letter made up of two Chinese signs, "water" and "spirit," and pronounced by us "ki". Thus "steamship" is *ki-sen*, railway is *ki-sha*.

It is evident, however, that the apparent desecration was really homage paid to its genius, like the mutilation exercised by devotees to the remains of their object of adoration. The Chinese language, unlike the Latin, suffered nothing at home on this account. On the contrary, Japanese, after centuries of borrowing, is now paying at least the interest of its linguistic debt. The modern ideas of the West, its nomenclature of science, its technical terms of law, its set phrases of politics, have all been rendered in Japanese neologisms, and as these are in *Kango*, they are now adopted by the Chinese themselves with little alteration. It is true that the *Kango* are foreign in Japan only in the sense that words of classical origin are foreign in a modern European vocabulary. It is roughly calculated that, out of some 300,000 words in the English dictionary, only one-tenth is of real English origin, the rest being taken from different languages. Though I have seen no estimate made of the number of Chinese loan words, their proportion cannot be less, since there are not many genuine Japanese words which have no equivalents in *Kango*, whereas many *Kango* have no counterparts in Japanese.

It is strange that, in spite of the national consciousness which has steadily marked the development of the Japanese people, we rarely hear of any attempt at linguistic purification, like Degallicisation or Verdeutschung. It was as late as 1867, soon after the country was opened to foreign trade, that a certain Baron Mayejima addressed a memorial to the Government,

¹ *Le Langage*, p. 86.

² GIBBON : *Decline and Fall*, Ch. LXVI.

recommending the abolition of the use of ideographs. A few years later an astounding idea was suggested in the form of a modest question sent by Arinori Mori, then Minister in Washington, to the famous philologist Dr. Whitney, in which the writer naively asked whether it would be feasible for his country to do away with its language and to adopt English in its place! Nobody took the idea seriously. But he who would mount a hill must aim at the sky, and Mori's query stirred no small interest in the language question. Societies for the exclusive use of the *Kana* were formed in 1883, followed the next year by those for the adoption of the Roman alphabet. The National Education Society took up the question of the extensive use of *Kana*. The Department of Education nominated a committee to study the *modus operandi* of Roman transcription. Educators, literati, philologists, nationalists and cosmopolites found in this question ample field for airing their views and sentiments.

The Japanese have thus arrived at a stage of national consciousness where they can calmly and objectively survey the effect of Chinese learning on their mind. From the time when they were dazzled by Chinese letters, they passed through a period of blind worship and then of laborious adaptation and of complete assimilation. "The greatest lesson which the philosophical analysis of language teaches us", says Jowett, "is that we should be above language, making words our servants and not allowing them to be our masters."¹ They have reached the stage in the use of Chinese language, or rather words, where, by naturalising them, they have brought them under their complete control. They can now use them as they will. They can restrict their activity to certain fields of work. They can play with them for purposes of art. They can keep their number within rational bounds. What is the future of Chinese in the linguistic system of Japan? A bird's-eye view of the past will help us in forming an opinion; but, before doing so, let us pause for a few minutes to consider the spread in Japan of another Asiatic language, which, though very different in construction, came into Japan in the wake of Chinese letters.

V. Words of Hindu Origin in Japanese Vocabulary.

With the introduction of Buddhism in the sixth century, a large number of words of Hindu origin, especially of Sanskrit, filtered into the Japanese vocabulary; but these are by no means proportionate to the extent to which that religion has spread, because it was through the medium of Chinese translation and Chinese priests that its diffusion was accomplished. As in other countries, so in Japan: it was the priests that were the torch-bearers of learning, and, in the spread of Sanskrit, the Buddhist priests were naturally pioneers. We have seen that the *I-ro-ha* was attributed to a priest. This had little to do with Sanskrit, but, most simultaneously with it, there was invented a phonetic schema called "the Table of fifty Sounds."

a	ka	sa	ta	na	ha	ma	ya	ra	wa
i	ki	si	ti (chi)	ni	hi	mi	yi (i)	ri	wi
u	ku	su	tu (tsu)	nu	hu (fu)	mu	yu	ru	wu (u)
e	ke	se	te	ne	he	me	(y)e	re	we
o	ko	so	to	no	ho	mo	yo	ro	wo

Really there were but forty-seven. This is so like the Devanagārī, the "Divine Town Writing" of Ancient India, that some see in it a Sanskrit influence. But whoever will compare the two systems may easily detect several radical differences. The *Nagari* has thirteen vowels and

¹ *Dialogues of Plato*, Vol. I, p. 285.

thirty-three consonants, while the *I-ro-ha* has five and forty-two respectively. The *Nagar* has apparently sounds of *l, v, lh, ph* and many others which are wanting in the *I-ro-ha*. On the other hand, the Japanese Table contains many sounds absent in the *Nagari*. If the framers of the Table were influenced by the Sanskrit, it was in this — that they got the idea of schematisation, and such a process is in perfect accord with the general trend of Japanese mentality. Openness to suggestion with originality in application is eminently characteristic of Japanese psychology.

We are told of several celebrated priests of the ninth century, who studied in China, and, after their return home, wrote on Sanskrit grammar. One noticeable fact about the scientific activity of the priesthood is, that, as they studied Sanskrit through the medium of Chinese, they developed the sense of philological research and of the principles of phonetics. Their contributions, therefore, helped greatly in understanding the various phonetic systems employed in China in different provinces and at different periods ; but their partisan zeal contributed in no small measure to the confusion in selecting a system for the pronunciation of *Kango*. We may make this point clearer to European readers by citing, for instance, the way in which the Japanese read geographical names. Those who have studied English call Spain *Spain*; but German students will insist on *Spanien*, and French scholars on *Espagne*, while those who know of the old-time relations with that country continue to call it *Hispania*.

A perplexing feature in phonating the Chinese loan words when they are used in Buddhist literature is that they usually follow the *Wu* sound (in Japanese *Go-on*), a system of pronunciation in vogue in China in the *Wu* period ; whereas ordinarily Chinese words are pronounced, as has already been explained, according to the usage of the *Han* (Japanese *Kan*) period.

VI. The Effect of the Introduction of Chinese Language.

The penetration of the Chinese language throughout Japan has been compared rightly with that of Latin in Europe. In many respects the parallelism will hold true, and its study may throw light on the larger aspects of the international and inter-racial exchange of culture. I shall hazard for the present a few observations, confining them to the question of language.

1. The Latin tongue was disseminated in Europe by Roman troops and merchants from camps and marts. The Roman colonies of Marseilles, Narbonne, Lyons, Toulouse were centres of propagation. Gibbon tells us that the Romans made it their "most serious care to extend, with the progress of their arms, the use of the Latin tongue".¹ It was far otherwise with the Chinese language, which found lodgment in Japan through the influence of priests and literati, and from temples and schools, which were maintained by the Japanese.

2. If, in the diffusion of Latin, the Romans maintained its exclusive use in the administration of civil and military government, no constraint of any sort was brought to bear by China on the Japanese to induce them to adopt her letters. The adoption of Chinese was an entirely free and voluntary act on the part of the Japanese.

3. In Europe, Latin passed from Roman lips to Barbarian ears, and then it was repeated by Barbarian lips into Roman ears. It circulated orally, through personal contact. In the Far East, the Chinese language was transmitted in black and white to Japanese eyes — in visible forms instead of in sounds.

4. From the preceding remarks, it follows that while Latin, be it in a vulgar form, filtered quickly into the lower strata of society; for a long time Chinese remained in Japan the language of the *élite*.

5. In consequence of the personal contact between the Barbarians and the Romans, there ensued the lowering of Roman culture and language². But China lost nothing by giving its light to Japan ; perhaps she gained by the law that to him who gives more shall be given, as well as by the unstinted admiration she won from her willing pupil.

¹ *Decline and Fall*, Ch. II.

² See VINAGRAOFF : " Social and Economic Conditions of the Roman Empire in the Fourth Century ", in *Cambridge Mediæval History*, Vol. I, Ch. XIX.

Though, thus, linguistic penetration in Western Europe and in Eastern Asia was carried on in widely divergent manners, it brought about very much the same results, which for Japan may be summarised as follows :

- (1) Vast additions to the Japanese vocabulary and corresponding expansion of ideas ;
- (2) The retention of Chinese sounds with some slight modifications in pronouncing words of Chinese origin ;
- (3) The general adoption of Chinese script with very small changes and additions ;
- (4) The sinification of native names and words ;
- (5) The study of Sanskrit by means of Chinese ;
- (6) The knowledge of Chinese philosophy and literature, and of Hindu religion through Chinese channels.

These, then, the Japanese race owes to China as the reward of centuries of unswerving imitation, ambitious emulation, laborious application and intense assiduity. Japan should be grateful, but not in the ordinary sense of gratitude. The Filipinos may well be grateful to America for teaching them English and for instituting a common means of inter-communication among themselves. It is the greatest of American gifts, barring national independence, which may yet come. But the introduction of the Chinese language was neither a gift nor a favour from China to Japan. If it was a gift, it was a gift without a giver. We know of no policy formulated by China to aid Japan in its struggle for progress. It was not that China taught, but that Japan learned. Japan ought to be thankful — but to whom ? To her geographical contiguity ; to an all-wise Providence ? But in the dispensations of Providence, man never obtains unalloyed blessing nor unmitigated evil. In drawing up the debit and credit account of what Japan borrowed from China, it is only fair to count the cost — the price she paid. The price was not paid to China, but Japan paid it all the same, even though it may have been sunk in the sea or disappeared in the air. To throw off metaphors — what were the sacrifices that Japan made in adopting the Chinese language so liberally and so deliberately ? Has the domination which Japan assigned in the hour of thoughtless youth to the Chinese language weakened her native initiative or destroyed any native ideal ? Has its study “given fetters rather than wings” to her mind ? We may profitably calculate the cost and, in doing so, I shall call to witness an unbiassed third party instead of Chinese or Japanese advocates. Dr. William D. Whitney, one of the greatest pioneers of linguistic science, thought “it was unfortunate for an inflected tongue like the Japanese to be obliged to resort to China for an alphabet”, and bewailed the introduction of ideographs, which he called “the most detestable mode of writing in the world, and the greatest existing obstacle to the acquirement of the language”¹.

An eminent English scholar, Dickins, speaks of the immense superiority of ancient Japanese to Chinese as a means of expression. He calls Chinese “a skeletal tongue, a staccato sequence of formless vocables, etc.” According to the same writer, ancient Japanese “might have become a vehicle of literary expression not much less inferior to Greek than, in many respects, such a language as French is to the tongue of Homer and Sophocles, though it might never have attained the extreme of personification...”².

If by the appropriation of Chinese Japan has, as it were, committed linguistic infanticide, nipping in the unformed bud a language that might have proved a contribution to human progress, it may still not be too late to undo the past. In these recent times we are witnessing the ecrudescence of tongues that have lain dormant for centuries. Nor is the resurrection of an apparently dead language a phenomenon of the twentieth century. Gibbon gives instances of several. Should Old Japanese be brought back to life ? Not the most patriotic will advocate so radical a measure as this. “Let the dead bury its dead !” With or without Chinese influence, Yamato, like Anglo-Saxon, would have gone with the progress of the nation. It will be as useless and impossible a task to resuscitate Yamato in its purity as to revive old

¹ *Language and the Study of Language*, 3rd Ed. p. 329.

² *Primitive and Mediæval Japanese Texts*, Vol. I, p. xxvii. See also Vol. II, p. xii.

English¹. But just as the English tongue, after a neglect of three hundred years (1066-1385) came into its own, with the rise of national consciousness and popular rights, so there has of late been fostered in Japan a strong tendency to do away with the ostentation and pedantry of Chinese learning. We shall speak of this further on.

VII. *The Use of Ideographs.*

As I have intimated further back, I shall call upon a third party to give its verdict on this question. The jury will be sharply divided in its opinion and we shall have to wait a long time yet for a final judgment.

In speaking of this subject, Dr. Williams says: "The effects of a course of study like this, in which the powers of the tender mind are not developed by proper nourishment of truthful knowledge, can hardly be otherwise than to stunt the genius and drill the faculties of the mind into a slavish adherence to venerated usage and dictation, making the intellects of Chinese students like the trees which their gardeners so toilsomely dwarf into pots and jars — plants, whose unnaturalness is congruous to the insipidity of their fruit²."

The same view is expressed by Dr. Taylor, another of the foremost authorities on linguistic studies, who, writing in the same year with Dr. Williams but in a different country and on a different topic, expressed himself as follows:

"It is plain that to acquire an exhaustive knowledge of such a cumbrous system of writing would be a very formidable task... The result is that at the age of twenty-five a diligent Chinese student has barely acquired the same amount of facility in reading and writing which is usually attained by a child in an English village school at the age of ten. It may fairly be said that with the Chinese method it takes twenty years instead of five to learn to read and write³."

Dr. Williams' observation has been more than confirmed by one of the foremost writers of the present age. Says Mr. H. G. Wells: "Their necessary concentration upon words and classical forms, rather than upon ideas and realities, seems, in spite of her comparative peacefulness and the very high individual intellectual quality of her people, to have greatly hampered the social and economic development of China. Probably it is the complexity of her speech and writing, more than any other imaginable cause, that has made China to-day politically, socially and individually a vast pool of backward people rather than the foremost Power in the whole world⁴."

This challenge has been denied by many who have studied the question, and among others by an eminent scholar of Japanology, Professor B. H. Chamberlain. He makes the following pregnant observations: "The Japanese lad of fifteen is abreast of his English contemporary in every way... The fact seems to be that at a certain age, the mind will absorb any system of written symbols equally well. A large number can, practically, be learnt in the same time as a small number, just as a net with many meshes can be taken in by the eye as easily as a net with few. The same holds good of spoken symbols⁵." Some recent experiments in pedagogy have more or less substantiated Chamberlain's remarks; but the facility of acquiring and memorising seems to be confined to *a certain age* and that only a comparatively short period. What waste of mental energy is entailed by the present mode of teaching ideographs is shown in an illuminating study made of the language instruction as given in Japanese and European, especially Bavarian, schools.

During the six years of the primary school course, eleven and one-third hours weekly are devoted to the study of Japanese, whereas in Europe and America only about eight hours are devoted to the native language. Japanese children spend 44 % of their school days in learning

¹ Compare *Cambridge History of English Literature*, Ch. VIII, particularly pp. 401-404. Also GREEN'S *History of the English People*, Vol. I, p. 415.

² *The Middle Kingdom*, Vol. I, p. 541.

³ *The Alphabet*, Vol. I, pp. 32, 33.

⁴ *The Outline of History*, First Ed. Vol. I, p. 132.

⁵ *Things Japanese*, 5th Ed., revised, p. 519.

their mother tongue as against 31 % by Europeans. During their school years Japanese children learn 9,900 words, while German children master 48,000. That is to say, it takes Japanese children 4 hours 20 minutes to learn one hundred words, while German children require only 38 minutes. The result of investigation seems to show that the vocabulary and the reading capacity of an ordinary Japanese youth at the age of fifteen is about on a level with the average German child of eight.

A curious corroboration of this statement is furnished by observation of the blind, who learn to read by the Braille system only the 47 characters of the *Kana* and who are not taught Chinese ideographs. It has been repeatedly proved that the blind acquire, in the same length of time, more solid knowledge than ordinary children — be it of history, geography or literature.

This instance of the blind has been held to be conclusive evidence against the use of ideographs; but the inference does not take into due consideration many advantages that the ideographs afford to those who can see — particularly their artistic value and their wide currency.

Schopenhauer once remarked that "one exceedingly conspicuous advantage of Chinese characters" is that "we can use them without understanding Chinese"; because they are signs of things or ideas. As Vendryes observes, they reproduce not a spoken but a thought language. They are a graphic language speaking to the eye. Whether a certain sign is pronounced or called one way by the Chinese, another by the Japanese, and still another by an Annamite, it will convey the same meaning to them all. The Arabic numeral "5" may be pronounced "fem" or "fünf", "cinque" or "cinco", "pet" or "piatz", etc.; but it remains five, no more and no less. Only, a Japanese boy must be able to give two very different pronunciations to each Chinese character, one in genuine Japanese and the other in *Kango*, so that if he learns 3,000 words, he must be able to pronounce double the number.

One who had more experience than Schopenhauer in this matter, Professor Chamberlain, says that "ideographic writing apparently possesses inherent strength that makes it tend to triumph over (without entirely supplanting) phonetic writing, whenever the two are brought into competition in the same arena", and then gives examples of different systems of notation and abbreviations of currency denomination.

Never, perhaps, has Chinese calligraphy received from a European scholar such panegyric for its sematological and artistic significance as it did recently from Keyserling. Enthused over it, he exclaims: "O, if I only knew how to write Chinese! I would willingly give up all other modes of expression. When all words are blown away, the enlightened spirits will still be able to see truth in the fragments of Chinese writings¹." Lafcadio Hearn has often extolled the artistic beauty of Chinese letters.

VIII. *Restrictions on the Use of Ideographs.*

Quotations might be multiplied about the merits and demerits, the blessings and the evils of Chinese ideography. But they will only involve us in flagrant contradictions, for opinions vary according to personal experience and observation, according to individual temperaments and humours. A thoroughly objective judgment is still to come.

As is usual in all questions of such far-reaching range and with such a long history, there is much to be said on either side — and the wisest conclusion is likely to be in the golden mean. Idle for us, who have inherited the system, to denounce it *in toto*. Foolish, likewise, to endure a yoke when its weight hangs heavy. So intricately is a language, vocal or graphic, bound up with the social, political and intellectual life and development of a race that the least interference requires delicate manipulation, and the slightest amputation particular skill. We admire the courage of the Bulgarian Government when, in July 1921, it struck out from the alphabet three letters practically never used — reducing it to twenty-eight. China and Japan

¹ *Reisetage Buch eines Philosophen*, p. 440.

have certainly reason enough to emulate and chances enough to excel Bulgaria. There is a decided limit to the power of youthful brains to absorb ideographs. Even supposing the absorbing capacity great, are there not other things better worth while than the mastering of innumerable written characters? Every child, as he grows up, will admit that he quickly forgets a large part of the 2,600 letters he was taught in the primary school. "Lightly come, lightly go." Above the adolescent age, the retention of the characters becomes a continual strain. A middle-school lad is burdened with some 5,000 ideographs. There was a time when a letter was considered "worth a thousand, nay two thousand pieces of gold", but the present age evaluates knowledge differently. The intellectual resources of the nation ought not to be squandered on acquiring or retaining these complicated symbols, especially when they can be conveniently supplanted by simpler signs. An old-fashioned erudite Chinese scholar would know some 20,000 characters, and a complete lexicon may contain no less than 53,000. A small pocket Japanese-French dictionary¹, compiled by M. Dautremier, has over 7,500 letters. It has been calculated that 4,000 are required by a Japanese of ordinary education, and that 2,000 are sufficient for reporting speeches in the Imperial Diet. With less than 2,000 a daily newspaper is difficult to follow.

A glimpse at these figures gives us a hint as to the course to pursue in economising national energy. First of all, do away with the superfluous. The 53,000 characters include hundreds — some say 12,000 — which scholars may use once in a century, thousands which ordinary mortals may use once in a lifetime. As to the rest, if one has a couple of thousand at command, these suffice for everyday need. If more are called for, resort can be had to the *Kana*.

A beautiful metaphor of Coleridge applies to Chinese ideography with peculiar appropriateness: "Language is the armoury of the human mind, and at once contains the trophies of its past and the weapons of its future conquests." We may safely say that nine-tenths of the contents of the Chinese armoury are "trophies of the past" — once used by poets and emperors, but now condemned to eternal disuse!

The first practical step taken in the restriction of the use of ideographs taught in primary and secondary schools was to limit the number to 1,961. When this decision of the Department of Education was made public in the spring of 1923, the representatives of the Press endorsed the plan by passing a resolution to the effect that they would banish from their printers' cases all other characters than the 1,961. Such a selection means a great intellectual saving to the nation, as well as steering a middle course between the two extremes of conservation and abolition of ideographs.

¹ *Dictionnaire Japonais-Français des caractères chinois*, Librairie Garnier Frères.

PART II.

THE STUDY AND USE OF WESTERN LANGUAGES IN MODERN TIMES.

IX. *The Dutch Advance in the Sixteenth Century.*

As early as the sixteenth century, repeated efforts were made by European nations — Portuguese, Spanish, Dutch and English to obtain a commercial and religious foothold in Japan ; but none of them succeeded in keeping up diplomatic relations for any length of time. The Dutch only established a trading-post early in the seventeenth century ; but even in their case a factory on the small island of Deshima, near Nagasaki, was the only agency at their command.

The study of any Western language was prohibited under pain of death, and only a few interpreters were allowed to know Dutch. Even these interpreters were not free to read Dutch books. A curious system was adopted of enabling the interpreters to understand and speak Dutch ; but they could have no recourse to any foreign printed matter. The presence of a Dutch physician in Deshima and his surgical feats had strongly impressed the Japanese doctors and it did not take long for them to follow his operations and learn the manipulation of his instruments. There was thus formed a group of physicians who professed a knowledge of Dutch medicine, and they were called later, as they enlarged their practice, the Dutch school, in contra-distinction to the old Chinese school of practitioners. Debarred from literature they could not make much progress. They might watch an operation performed by Dutch surgeons or hear them explain it by every other means than books ! Early in the eighteenth century, however, interpreters as a body made a petition to the authorities, saying that in their conversation with the "South Barbarians" (so called because the Dutch came to Japan from Java and Sumatra) they found it exceedingly inconvenient and disgraceful not to be able to read their "crab" writings (*i.e.* horizontal in contrast to the vertical Japanese methods of writing). They were therefore compelled to beg for the privilege of learning the written language of the West. This petition being granted, the limited number of interpreters and of physicians began to have access to the scanty number of books brought from Batavia. One surgeon, Yoshio by name, made himself a benefactor to his country by translating Dr. Blenck's work on surgery and distributing it among his six hundred pupils. About the middle of the same century (1744) Aoki, as a result of years of endeavour, succeeded in learning from a Dutchman about five hundred words for common use. These he compiled into a rudimentary dictionary. He was followed by a physician who enlarged his lexicon in 1770 by adding two hundred words.

It is touching to see that this meagre vocabulary was for several decades the mainstay of the Japanese students of the Dutch language. We can scarcely conceive how, with only this scanty vocabulary, they could make any headway in their study of medicine. Could they really understand works like Lorenz Heister's *Compendium Medicinæ Practicæ*, full of Latin terms ? They could manage *Tafel Anatomia* better, as it consists largely of illustrations ; but it took years to translate even that.¹

¹ In memory of those pioneers of Dutch learning, let a paragraph be quoted from Sugita's autobiographical account of the "Beginnings of the Study of Dutch in Japan". In relating his experiences in 1771, he writes : — "When we gathered together the following day at Maéno's house and faced the 'Tafel Anatomia', we felt as if we had launched on a wide sea in a rudderless boat. We were at a loss how to steer our course, and remained dumfounded. The difficulty was enormous. For instance, in reading such an easy sentence as 'The eyebrow is the arch of hair over the eye', a long spring day's labour barely enabled us to understand even a word of the line. One day, as we read about the nose, we came to a full stop where the word 'verheffend' occurred. There was no complete 'woordenboek' then ; we had only a small one which Maéno had brought from Nagasaki. Consulting it, we found as explanation that when a branch of a tree is cut, the wood will *verheffend* at the place, and that when a garden is swept, the dust will gather and *verheffend*. So we tried to guess what the word meant. It occurred to me that when a branch of a tree is cut, the wood will rise at the place after a while, and that when the dust is swept, it will rise too. Now as the nose is a prominent feature of the face it might be said to *verheffend*, to rise from the face. The other two approved my interpretation, and so we settled its meaning. I was as pleased at my success as if I had found a gem of the first water." (*Fifty Years of New Japan*, COUNT OKUMA, 1909, Vol. II, p. 140.)

The knowledge of the Dutch tongue was for a long time identified with, and confined to, the medical profession. But as the fear of foreign invasion lessened with time, the laws regulating the acquisition of European tongues lost somewhat of their severity. In consequence, in 1811, a Translation Bureau was officially established, and curiously enough it was domiciled in the same building with the Astronomical Observatory! Under the more liberal régime, many thousands of ambitious aspirants to fame or to philanthropy (in the Far East, the medical profession used to be classified with charity) took up Dutch, and even schools where that language was taught were tolerated.

The bolder spirits availed themselves of this lenient administration of Draconic laws quietly to stalk out of their prescribed bounds and indulge in excursions into wider fields of study.

Let it be remembered that in its last analysis, the motive for the study of a foreign language in Japan was to make practical use of it, be this in science or politics. Among the students of Dutch were not a few who were drawn to it in order to get acquainted with the policy of the Government of the Netherlands in the East Indies. When it became evident that the Dutch were not aggressive, but that other nations were encroaching upon the Far East, students turned their eyes to other languages than Dutch and to other branches of knowledge than medicine. One man compiled a geography of the world, another wrote on the state of Europe, a third on Germany, a fourth on Atmospheric Phenomena, a fifth on Chemistry — all on the strength of their knowledge of Dutch.

When Japan was opened to trade in 1854, the country found itself greatly hampered in diplomatic and commercial negotiations on account of linguistic ignorance. The Translation Bureau could not easily descend from its perch in the Astronomical Observatory to meet the sudden demands of the market and the counter. A government school was therefore established under the name of "Institute for the Examination of Barbarian Books" (*Bansho Shirabejo*). The change in the mental attitude towards Western science is well shown in that of the title of this Academy, which was soon afterwards known as the "Institute for the Examination of Western Books" (*Yosho-Shirabejo*), and some months later (1862) altered again to the "Institute of Progress" (*Kaiseijo*).

To sum up — Dutch was thus the first European tongue taught in Japan. Its primary importance was for trade. Later it served as a channel through which modern science (medicine in particular) was introduced, and, during the last phase of its popularity, it was converted into a vehicle for the larger languages of Europe. Its impress on our language was feeble. A few nouns — *flesch*, *doek*, *matroos*, *zondag*, *vlag*, *etc.* — were added to our vocabulary. It is curious that the influence of Dutch pronunciation still lingers among some scholars.

The contribution of Holland to the progress of Japan is not to be measured in terms of linguistics. It was of higher import. No higher praise than this can be bestowed on a nation — that by peaceful means it prepared another nation to be born anew.

X. *The Increasing Demand for Western Languages.*

Now at the time of the opening of the country for foreign trade in 1854, Japan found herself without a single citizen who could interpret English. There were a few men who had accidentally picked up some English, but none who could speak it with any degree of fluency. In the negotiations between the Americans in 1852-4, the interpretation was of an exceedingly inadequate kind. A shipwrecked man whom an auspicious wind had carried to the Californian coast and who learned to speak some English acted as interpreter. Besides Dr. Williams the famous Sinologist, who came to our aid with his knowledge of Chinese, Dutch interpreters were called into service.

The Government was forcibly convinced of the necessity of providing itself with a duly trained interpretation service. The new order consequent upon the opening of the country to foreign trade created a sudden demand for the knowledge of Western languages — particularly of English, as the *lingua franca* of commerce in the East, and then of Russian, because of

Russia's ominous approach, of French, because of the great military strength of France (remember it was in the days of Louis Napoleon) as well as of her famous *Code Napoléon*, and, to a lesser degree, of German, as being nearest to Dutch and therefore most convenient for medical students.

It was at this time that a smattering of the knowledge of English or French was a qualification for high posts in civil service, and hence every bright youth rushed into language schools, and, to meet these demands, schools of every grade and variety were soon started ; but by far the most popular among them were those where English was taught — largely because America was the first to open commercial relations with us ; secondly, because the political and commercial power of England was most felt in the Orient ; thirdly, because it was Anglo-Saxon countries that sent out most missionaries and travellers to the Far East. Ever since 1870 there has scarcely been a school of any pretensions which has not included English in its curriculum. But, notwithstanding this fact, students have flocked to them not so much to learn colloquial English as to get a reading knowledge of it.

Because the study of foreign languages was pursued as a means to other studies, it was naturally relegated to secondary courses of education, and only lately has it found a place in the Universities and in special schools devoted to it. During a decade — or two — say, roughly, 1865-1885 — all higher instruction was imparted in English, French or German. Even Japanese professors lectured in a Western tongue ; technical terms had not been translated into Japanese. Scientific research is not yet sufficiently developed in Japan to be self-sustaining. It may be said that no country is entirely independent in the domain of science. In the case of Japan this dependence is felt with peculiar force, since, on account of distance in space and in language, she feels herself very much isolated. Research of any kind — even of Japanese philology and history — must call to its aid Western sciences, for comparison and verification.

The choice of a language by a student depended much on that of his profession. For a medical career, he almost invariably chose German ; for a diplomatic, legal or military training, French ; for political, naval, business or general service, English. It would seem that among the students of forty and fifty years ago there was apparent a reciprocal relation between their temperament and the language they chose. This was particularly noticeable among the French-studying youths. It was no affectation on their part. If individual temperament was drawn to certain languages, the kind of books read in them accentuated its idiosyncrasies. The active and pliable mind that has 'fed of the dainties that are bred in a book', that has eaten paper, as it were, and drunk the ink, could not resist showing the diet that nourished it. The gods whose oracles the books were surely worked in the heart of the devotees in different ways. No gods drew more worshippers among the English-reading public than Bentham, Austin, Mill, while the French-reading youths fondly clung to their idols — Voltaire, Rousseau. The temperamental divergences of students according to the languages elected are nowadays not so perceptible as formerly, perhaps because their adoration is shared by a larger number of gods.

There is more or less fluctuation in the popularity of a foreign tongue. French was quite popular in the military circle until 1871, when it began to wane in prestige. During the years preceding the proclamation of our Civil Code, French was the chief language in which law was studied. In the early 'eighties of the last century, at the time of the nation's preparation for a constitution, there came a sudden change, officially encouraged, in favour of German, and German still continues to be the chief medium for scientific purposes. This tendency has somewhat lessened since the Great War and French is again gaining ground, partly due to the presence of M. Paul Claudel in Tokyo as French Ambassador.

The Russian language used to be studied for diplomatic and commercial purposes. Until quite recently it did not receive the attention it deserves for the wealth of its literature. It has had for decades most worthy representatives in the person of the emissaries of the Greek Church ; but their method of propaganda has been very different from that of the Protestants, which is largely educational. By far the most widespread foreign language in Japan continues to be

English, and though for a time it was in danger of being neglected for purposes of higher studies, the rise of American sciences has checked this danger. Most of what we have to say regarding the diffusion and teaching of foreign languages in Japan relates, therefore, to English.

XI. *Two Methods of Teaching a Foreign Language.*

In studying English, there are two methods in vogue, known as *Seisoku* (the Regular) and *Hensoku* (the Irregular). The Regular method, which in its main conception is identical with the so-called "Direct" or "Reformed" method in the English system of teaching modern studies¹, teaches the correct reading of English words with proper accents, emphasis, etc., and so leads a pupil to understand them without translating them into Japanese. The "Berlitz" method may be taken as the type, and this statement will give a sufficient notion of the so-called Regular method. But the Irregular method will require a longer explanation.

Its sole object is to get the sense of a sentence and therefore it gives no heed whatever how a word sounds. If it is necessary to pronounce an English word (this holds good of any other Western language), as little respect is paid to the pronunciation of the original as in the case of *Kango*. I am given a sentence — "Love your neighbour". As long as I understand what each of these words means, and grasp the idea of the whole sentence, what should I care how it sounds in my own or others' ears — provided I am not expected to make or hear a speech. The nearest approach to the spoken-English pronunciation is, "*Ra-buyu-ru nee-bo-ru*". Even this much reading is not required in the Irregular method. If the word spelt l-o-v-e means *ai-suru* in Japanese, and y-o-u-r is the possessive case of *nanji* (you) and n-e-i-g-h-b-o-u-r is clearly *rinjin* — I have the exact idea of the commandment. I look at these words with the same complacency and comprehension as at three Chinese ideographs standing for them. This is quite legitimate and all-sufficient for one studying in silence. When one has to teach or explain to others what the sentence means, one has to begin with "your" (a particle showing the possessive case), follow it with "neighbour" (adding objective particle) and end with "love" (with suffix showing the imperative mood). For a longer sentence, say, *e. g.* : "Do unto others as ye would that they should do unto you", the Japanese translation will run with appropriate particles thus : "Others you-to do-would that you others-to do", and the Irregular method is entirely satisfied with this process of rendering a foreign language intelligible. It must be said to its praise that students who are trained in this way have usually much more accurate and precise comprehension of what they read than those who are taught to read parrot-like one sentence after another without thinking fully of the meaning. Not unusually does the Regular method turn out "a reading machine, always wound 'up' and going", and emitting correct English sounds, but mastering nothing worth the knowing.

We must remember that in the early days of Modern Japan, the 'sixties and the 'seventies of the last century, when the study of Western languages was most eagerly sought after and there were very few foreigners resident in Japan, the Irregular method was the only one possible. Pioneer students had to make some sense out of Western books, with an exceedingly limited vocabulary ; for, as we have seen, dictionaries were few in number, meagre in their contents, and inexact in their definition. The spread and refinement of this method is chiefly due to Mr. Fukuzawa.

XII. *Schools for Foreign Languages.*

Among those who studied the Dutch language, ostensibly to acquire medical knowledge but really to get first-hand information regarding the West, was Fukuzawa, the outstanding figure in the intellectual history of Modern Japan. Seeing that the old order was vanishing and that

¹ See for comparison the very interesting Report of the Committee appointed to Enquire into the Position of Modern Languages in the Educational System of Great Britain, 1918, pp. 54, 55.

the new order was at hand, not only in Japan but throughout the world, he quickly abandoned the volume of a Dutch book on Physics which he had assiduously copied word by word, and betook himself to the study of English. This he learned by the sole aid of a Dutch-English dictionary. In his school, founded in 1858 for the study of Dutch, he introduced English as early as 1862. As far as priority goes, the Institute of Progress had two years previously enlarged the scope of its instruction so as to include English, French, German and Russian ; but during the war of Restoration the Institute was practically closed. Fukuzawa took no part in the politics of his day but taught his pupils to build for the future, and their tool was the English tongue. The school he started, Keio (now elevated to the University grade), is still one of our greatest institutions of learning, where instruction in English, albeit according to the Irregular method, has consistently been carried on ; whereas our Government foundations have at times shown a leaning towards the German language and system of education.

As soon as the war of Restoration ended in 1868, with the introduction of the new régime, education was one of the first subjects seriously taken up by the Government. The year 1869 saw the creation of the Department of Instruction and the year 1872 the promulgation of an Educational Law. Though in the framing of the Law the educational systems of European countries were largely taken into consideration, in its execution American influence was paramount. American educationists of experience were invited by the Government to set the machinery in motion. Some of the textbooks in the secondary schools of those early days were English books, either in translation or in the original. Even arithmetic, history, geography — not to speak of special branches of study — were all taught in English, and usually by English or American teachers. There was even some danger lest the study of Japanese classics and history might be swamped by Western jargon. In the University and technical institutions of higher grade, until about 1880, all the lectures, even those given by Japanese professors, were in a European tongue (chiefly English) and only in 1882 were Japanese classics introduced into the University course.

The preparatory schools were naturally turned into language schools. In spite of repeated efforts to make the so-called Higher Schools or Colleges more like the upper grades of the German gymnasium, American college or French *lycée*, in the wider scope of their course, they still remain very much the preparatory schools for the University ; hence the teaching of languages occupies the largest number of hours. As fixed by Government regulations, students in the higher schools are required to take two of the three languages, — English, French and German — according to which faculty they wish to enter at the University. Whichever they may choose, they devote fully one-third of the weekly total of thirty-two hours to language studies.

Passing on to the University, the two Faculties of Law and Literature make particular demands on the linguistic qualifications of students. In the Law Faculty, besides Roman law, there are special courses in French, English and German law. Though the lectures are given in Japanese, constant references to the laws of these countries necessitate as fair a knowledge of their languages as the amount of "Law Latin" requires. In the Faculty of Literature in the Imperial Universities of Tokyo and Kyoto, special courses are given in the following languages and literatures : English, French, German, Chinese and Sanskrit. The Faculty of Economics gives more practical instruction in Commercial English. The Imperial University of Tokyo has been making public under different names the results of the research made by its members, — *e. g.*, Journal, Memoirs, Bulletin, Reports, Annals. Of these only the publication by the Medical Faculty has been printed in German, all the rest being in English, with occasional exceptions in German and French.

Mention has been made above of Fukuzawa and of his pronounced proclivity toward English thought and institutions. His influence is still strong — notwithstanding that he died in 1901 — and the school he founded, now known as the Keio University, is a powerful agent in the dissemination of English.

No less powerful in moulding the mind of young Japan is another large foundation, established by Count Okuma in 1882. The Waseda University has always stood for advanced ideas,

strongly inclined to Anglo-Saxonism. Another institution which was of much smaller scale, but which exerted a lasting influence on the progress of our country, was the Doninsha, a school opened by Dr. Keiwu Nakamura, an erudite Chinese scholar, who became a staunch admirer of European civilisation. He is best known as the translator of Mill's "Liberty", Smiles' "Self-Help" and "Character". His English school proved of invaluable service to New Japan in showing that the West is not altogether wanting in moral ideals. The same service was, however, rendered in a more positive way by still another school, which, if it had been established in Tokyo instead of in the old conservative city of Kyoto, would have been much more influential. A distinctly Christian College, started by Dr. Niishima in 1875, the Doshisha was supported for a long time by the Congregational Church of America and was naturally staffed by American teachers. Good teaching of English has been one of its distinguished features.

The diffusion of the English language by means of these popular private schools was nationwide. The Keio spirit is felt most among business men, that of Waseda in the Press, and Doshisha among the leaders of religious opinion — all primarily due to the influence of the English tongue.

Technical schools of higher grade all require the knowledge of a foreign tongue for admission; but, after entering them, scant use is made of it, except in reading reference books, and but little oral progress is made except in the Commercial College. Perhaps this last-mentioned institution provides the best instruction obtainable in practical English. The Naval Academy is also far from neglecting the teaching of English, while the Military Academy trains the cadets in French or German.

The foundations which we have been considering are not exclusively devoted to the teaching of English. As to schools specially organised with that object, the most important is the Government institution called "The Tokyo Foreign Language School", which provides instruction in the following twelve courses, — seven Occidental and five Oriental: English, German, French, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, Chinese, Hindustani, Korean, Malayan, Mongolian. To these languages will now be added Siamese and Tamil. Students pursuing any of these courses may matriculate in Law and Literature, Trade or Colonisation, according to the object to which they wish to put their studies into practical use. The language lessons proper are given 15 to 20 hours a week, but, besides these, students must attend lectures on the history, geography, customs, religion and social and political organisation of the people whose languages they learn. This Tokyo Foreign Language School has now a roll-call of about one thousand students and a large staff of foreign professors. A similar institution was started in Osaka in 1922.

These Government institutions, by their strict rules and by setting higher standards for admission, do not meet all the demands of the public. Hence, innumerable schools — some of doubtful competence — have come into existence in all the towns of the country. The best among them are the People's English Association (*Kokumin Eigaku Kai*) under the direction of Professor Isobé, and the English Language School by Regular System (*Seisoku Eigo Gakko*) under Professor Saito. Ever since they were opened, the former in 1888 and the latter in 1896, they have been crowded with eager students of all classes and ages.

Whoever studies the progress of foreign languages in Japan must acknowledge the invaluable service rendered by private organisations started under foreign auspices. They have made good the deficiencies from which public schools have suffered. The Roman Catholic missions have contributed an enormous amount in this respect. It must be granted that their ultimate object is proselytising, but to all appearance they have carried on an educational work detached from the religious. One of their schools, the *Gyosei* (Morning Star) Lyceum, opened in 1888, has been steadily growing, so that at the present time it is not only the best French-teaching institution, but is in many ways a model school. Similarly, the Catholics have established a fine institute, the *Seishin* (Sacred Heart) for Girls, where, too, the chief foreign language is French. The German Jesuits have started a theological seminary of high standing, Jochi

University, where instruction is mainly carried on in German. A school begun in 1877 by a Japanese organisation, called the German Association, maintains a high reputation for its German lessons.

As to institutions where the English language is the chief aim, they are of all grades. Worthy of special notice are those established and maintained by different mission boards — such are the *Doshisha* (Congregational), the *Aoyama Gakuin* (Methodist), the *Meiji Gakuin* (Presbyterian), the *Rikkyo* (Episcopal) — all these in Tokyo; then the *Kansai* (Southern Methodist) in Kobe, the *Toboku* (Methodist) in Sendai, the *To-o* (Methodist) in Hirosaki, the *Kassui* (Methodist) in Nagasaki. Different missionary boards have developed girls' schools of high standing, e.g., the *Jo-Gakuin* (Congregational) in Kobe, the *Doshisha Girls' School* (Congregational) in Kyoto, the *Sanyo Jo-Gakko* in Okayama, the *I-ai* (Methodist) in Hakodate, the *Eiwa* (Canadian Methodist), the *Joshi-Gakuin* (Presbyterian), the *Aoyama Gakuin* (Methodist) — the last three in Tokyo. There are about fifty schools for girls and eighty for boys under the management of different Christian missions, besides evening classes and lectures under the direction of the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations. Under the conjoint auspices of eight mission boards, the so-called Women's Christian College of Tokyo was formed in 1918. Among its various departments, the English is likely to be strongest and most popular. The Japanese University for Women, founded by the late Mr. Naruse, has an English Department almost as good as its Japanese. An institution started and managed by a Japanese lady, Miss Tsuda, with the collaboration of an American, Miss Hartshorne, has more than justified, by the thoroughness of its instruction, both its object and its name of "English School for Women".

In a short walk through the streets of Tokyo, especially in the student quarters, one can easily count a dozen signs attracting the attention of the passer-by to the unpretentious premises where rudimentary lessons in a foreign language are given. They are numerous and the contributions of these humble teachers, like drops of water, help to swell the tide of European influence.

XIII. *The Place of Foreign Languages in Secondary Education.*

From the very object of acquiring foreign languages, viz., in order to study special sciences, it is clear that they occupy a paramount place in the system of secondary education. This does not apply to the secondary education of girls: but here, too, some knowledge of a foreign tongue is deemed a necessary part of general culture. Before proceeding further, let me add that the Educational Law, which regulates the general scheme of instruction in all grades of schools, provides that even in a primary school, in places where such a course is advisable, a foreign tongue may be taught in the higher grade, as, for instance, in commercial ports where foreign trade plays an exceptionally important role.

To return to secondary education, there are at this present time some 350 so-called Middle, i.e., secondary schools for boys and 460 for girls, though in the latter case the object of one-third of these is more practical than cultural.

In the regulations relating to the curriculum of the Middle schools and of the high schools for girls (the latter correspond to boys' Middle schools), it is provided for the former that one of the three languages, English, French or German, is obligatory. In the girls' schools, although no foreign tongue is compulsory, where choice is made it must be between English and French. It must at first sight strike an outsider as passing strange that German is not recommended for girls' schools, seeing that their aim is so evidently to train women of the type of the Teutonic *Hausfrau*, "*Ryo-sai Ken-bo*" (Good wife, wise mother). This apparent inconsistency is due to the notion that German is pre-eminently the language of science and philosophy, both of which are perhaps deemed superfluous in the kitchen and the nursery! The provisions further state that girls' schools where a foreign language is taught should devote three hours a week throughout the whole course of five years. In the boys' schools the number of hours allotted to a foreign language varies as follows; and we shall put for comparison the number of

hours given to Japanese (including *Kango*) studies :

		English	Japanese
1st year	6 hours	8 hours
2nd »	7 »	8 »
3rd »	7 »	6 »
4th »	5 »	5 »
5th »	5 »	5 »

The Middle Schools range in size from a few hundred to a thousand pupils, usually 500 to 800 being quite common. As they cover five years there are, let us say, 100 boys taken annually in each school. They are placed in two or more divisions, say, of 30 each, though usually the number is smaller. Many boys come with some idea of ABC and of spelling. Ordinarily, they begin at the very beginning. The teachers are mostly Japanese, with a sprinkling of foreigners — a total of 70 or 80 of the latter being engaged in the Middle Schools. Altogether there are some 320 foreigners employed in educational institutions of all grades in the country more than half of whom are language teachers. The native teachers are themselves as a rule graduates of Japanese Universities, higher normal schools or special language schools. In order to teach, they must be possessed of certificates of fitness. These may be obtained by a course of study already pursued or by special examination. By far the largest number of them have never been abroad. They have little idea of actual life in Europe or America. Their eyes have never seen a foreign home or town ; their tongue has never succeeded (in a large majority of cases) in distinguishing “*l*” from “*r*”, “*v*” from “*b*” or “*lh*” from “*z*” — but all the same they amass a surprising amount of knowledge of foreign idioms, ways, manners, literature, history and, above all, ideas. They make no secret of their utter incompetence for verbal intercourse ; it is not expected of them. In fact, there is a deplorable propensity to boast of colloquial ignorance, as though a vague belief existed that the less one can talk the more one knows ! I am inclined to attribute this to the traditional belief that language is a medium for conveying knowledge, and that it is not speech, still less a phonation. A foreign language is thus made an exercise of the eyes and not of the ears, and least of all of the tongue. Its conquests are intellectual and not social. Its best helps are books and worst trials conversation. We treat modern European languages with as much respect and profit as Europeans treat classical languages. The serious consequence in our case, however, is that the languages we study are not yet dead !

XIV. *General Diffusion of Foreign Languages.*

Let us now examine the spread of foreign languages so far as this can be numerically expressed, and take a cursory glance at the Esperanto movement in Japan.

There are studying every year, in round numbers, 165,000 boys in 343 Middle schools, and some 130,000 girls in 467 girls' higher schools¹. In the 93 normal schools of the country there are always about 25,000 students of both sexes. Besides this, about 80,000 lads in different professional schools have regular English lessons. In the last two decades or so, there have been graduated year after year, from schools of intermediate grade, an average of 22,000 boys and perhaps a larger number of girls — not to speak of pupils educated in professional schools. Recently, the number of pupils graduating from schools of secondary grade (where English is obligatory) approximates 75,000 a year. If we take into further calculation the number of those who, in the last sixty years, have passed through the portals of institutions where English or some other Western language is taught, the sum total of those who have gained knowledge of a European tongue will easily reach a couple of millions. This is an enormous proportion in a country which lies at the edge of the so-called “Extreme Orient”, distant from Anglo-Saxon countries by one-third of the earth's circumference, eastward or westward. As an instance of

¹ We have entirely ignored primary schools, though in some of them a foreign language is taught.

at this means, I may state that there are about 400 magazines published in Japan which are devoted to the interest of foreign tongues.

Another index to the spread of foreign languages may be obtained from the number of Western (European and American) books in our public libraries. To give a few of the more prominent examples :

	Total No. Vols.	Western Books	Percentage
Imperial Library (1921)	348,052	82,608	23.7
University of Tokyo'	695,219	310,356	44.6
University of Kyoto	417,428	189,800	45.5
University of Tohoku	111,686	29,621	26.2
University of Hokkaido	54,143	27,624	51
Keio University	94,270	33,400	31.1

The proportion here given is by no means typical for all libraries, especially those in the provinces. Among these, really good libraries may contain perhaps no more than 5 per cent. foreign books.

The demand for foreign books is so great that reprints, particularly of schoolbooks, are made in large numbers. Periodicals for the purpose of aiding self-study in English and German are issued in various forms and grades. During 1918 there were published in the country 10 books on foreign languages and 524 magazines ; and in 1919, 277 books and 398 magazines.

As to the volume of foreign publications imported into the country, the following approximate figures furnished to the author by the largest book-importing firm, Maruzen, will give some idea :

	1921 Yen	1920 Yen	1919 Yen
Printed books, copy-books, drawing-books and periodicals	2,298,000	1,832,000	980,000
China	72,000	19,000	11,000
Kwantung Province... ..	10,000	8,000	5,000
British India	*4,000	*1,000	*3,000
The Straits Settlements	1,000	2,000	—
Asiatic Russia	2,000	—	—
Philippine Islands	—	1,000	—
Great Britain	*691,000	*660,000	*545,000
France	77,000	40,000	30,000
Germany	711,000	353,000	19,000
Belgium	15,000	5,000	1,000
Italy	2,000	7,000	—
Holland	26,000	9,000	28,000
Sweden	1,000	2,000	1,000
United States of America	*638,000	709,000	*322,000
Canada	*33,000	*2,000	*8,000
Argentine	—	1,000	—
Hawaii	—	*1,000	—
*Publications in the English Language... ..	1,367,000	1,376,000	878,000
	59.5%	75.1%	80.9%

Another fact, small in itself, will complement the statement made above. Among the publishers of the publications of the League of Nations, which are issued in French and English, Japan heads the list as the largest purchaser. Closely following her is the United States, although she is not a Member. Japan comes third, notwithstanding that no official document of

The recent earthquake destroyed some 700,000 books.

*Publications in the English language.

the League is printed in her tongue. Then follow the continental nations of Europe and South America.

The popularity of foreign languages, especially of English, is indicated by their frequent use for sign-boards and advertisements, in public lectures and private conversations. Some of the larger dailies in Osaka and Tokyo issue a regular English edition.

As the need for European languages was increasingly felt, the question of a universal medium of intercourse naturally followed in its train. Volapük was discussed at one time, but did not find a large following. Its place was taken by Esperanto. In 1906, the year following the first Universal Esperanto Congress in Boulogne, its cause was espoused by an astronomer, a historian and a well-known literary man. It had made but little headway before the Great War, when the general interest of the nation was seriously awakened to international affairs. Since 1918 the Esperanto Association has been growing rapidly. It has at present about 2,500 members, most of whom are students in all parts of the country. Periodicals, dictionaries, grammars have been published. Esperanto books printed in Europe have been imported in great numbers. Some popular magazines regularly devote a certain amount of space to its propaganda. Educationists have shown a lively interest in it and the Imperial Diet transmitted to the Government for its favourable consideration a petition presented for the encouragement of Esperanto. Painfully aware of their own linguistic incapacity, of the handicap under which they labour in international intercourse, the Japanese are turning to Esperanto with great hopes. The simplicity of its grammar, the ease with which it is pronounced, the consistency of its orthography appeal to them with peculiar force. Whatever prejudice and hostility it may encounter in Europe, Esperanto has met with an open mind in the Far East. It has been indicted as being a channel of radical thought: but it is well known that more propaganda literature of "dangerous ideas" exists in other languages.

Frequently the question is asked: Why not take up some great living language — albeit a little more difficult — with a history and literature? Esperanto does not claim to be adapted to the study of history or literature. Its main usefulness lies in the lower and wider region of practicality for trade, commerce and tourism. For these purposes no national tongue will be so grateful to be selected. Suppose French or English were proposed as a world tongue, its most zealous advocate would pause in pressing its acceptance if once he heard Pidgin English as spoken in China, or French used in Cambodia or Haiti. Esperanto will escape this mutilation because of its simplicity. Furthermore, the psychological consideration must not be neglected that an Oriental feels himself less handicapped and therefore bolder in the neutral ground of Esperanto than in the territory of a national language. He feels freer and less afraid to make mistakes when there are only sixteen rules to break!

The stereotyped objection that an artificial tongue can never take the place of a natural or national language is altogether away from the mark, inasmuch as no Esperantist advocate substituting it for the other. Neither can its artificiality be objected to if Esperanto proves itself self practical as a means of intercourse, any more than can an automobile be rejected because it is not a horse. Moreover, to an Oriental, English or French is as non-natural as Esperanto or Ido. Esperanto may even serve as a connecting link between an Oriental and an Occidental language. According to a notable experiment made in a school at Eccles, England, children who were taught Esperanto for one year and then took two years in French or German, outranked at the end of three years those who devoted the entire three years to one of these languages.

It is not unlikely that Esperanto will steadily gain ground in the East, both for its intrinsic worth and its practical utility, as well as for the *interna ideo* which it inculcates.

XV. *The Linguistic Inaptitude of the Race.*

The fact that a living language is used in Japan mainly for purposes of academic study, as an intellectual tool, prevents her from exploiting, so to speak, its full value for practical purposes. As I have said before, there is an unfortunate idea among Japanese scholars that the

use of a language for practical affairs argues a low grade of intellectual pursuit. Volubility of any sort commands no respect, and facility of speech in an unfamiliar tongue is rather looked upon with suspicion. Excuses were made to make virtue of the defect. It has been said that only a decadent people acquires a foreign tongue quickly, as an unconscious preparation for losing its own. Colloquialism is required of shopkeepers and tourists' guides and, at best, of language teachers.

Samuel Butler's satire on the abuse of linguistic talent is more than endorsed by the Japanese :

“He that is but able to express
No sense at all in several languages,
Will pass for learner than he that's known
To speak the strongest reason in his own.”

Such disparagement and derision of linguistic talent may, however, be considered as an unwilling confession of the general linguistic incapacity of the race. Perhaps no people in the Far East is so little gifted with speech as the Japanese. Is it due to the stoical training of which silence is one of the principal injunctions ? Is it due to the tradition, engendered by long isolation from the rest of the world, which regarded all alien tongues as barbarous ? Is it due to the mental insularity induced by geographical position ? Is it due to the general social aloofness inherited from feudal times ? Any or all of these reasons may explain the aversion of the Japanese to a foreign speech. There is lacking among them that debonair deportment which draws out and trains conversational powers. Thus a Japanese has not the makings of a linguist in him. There are also other and perhaps more cogent reasons for his inaptitude.

The native speech of the Japanese is rich in vowels and the pronunciation of words so easy that any other speech is jaw-breaking to them. This difficulty, added to the entirely different structure of a Western language, with its genders, cases and conjugations, enhances their incompetence and affords a real discouragement to any attempt at its mastery. Moreover, in acquiring a foreign colloquialism, the ear plays as important a role as the tongue, but the Japanese sense of sound and tone has been comparatively little developed. Take, for instance, Japanese music, where the quarter tones prevail and other tones are less significant than in European. It is a great pity that they did not enrich the phonetics of their language more at the time they borrowed so freely of Chinese vocabulary. Compare their syllabary, which contains only fifty standard sounds, with the wealth of Chinese phonetics. Morrison gives 411 syllables as forming their court dialect, and if those which are aspirated are separately enumerated, 533. The Cantonese dialect has 707. In the dialect of Amoy there are 900 and in that of Fuchau 928.¹ Besides, every Chinese word has a tone of its own, which distinguishes it from its homonyms. Japanese phonetics disregard a number of foreign sounds, *e.g.*, denti-labials (especially *v*), the denti-linguals (*l*, *th*, *dh*), the English *â* or *ã*, the guttural fricative sound of Northern Europe, the German *u* or *o*, with *umlaut*, etc. It is impossible to put into *Kana* the English *â* or *à* or the German *ô* or French *eu*. The utter disuse of the muscles called into action in emitting these sounds must have atrophied them. All these real objections and difficulties, both “organic” and “acoustic”, discomfit the Japanese and embarrass them with treble force, because of their fear of committing mistakes and discourtesies when associating with Westerners.

Signs of their linguistic weakness show themselves in the mental tests of Japanese children. According to Professor Darsie's report on the mental test of Japanese children in California, they are noticeably less apt in this respect than American children. He says that in other tests, the Japanese children are equal to and even superior to the American children. Among the tests which require no language are those which measure the reasoning and the memorising power ; he found that Japanese children are superior to American in the latter and equal to them in the former. Points of equality and of superiority naturally bring that of inferiority

¹ WILLIAMS : *The Middle Kingdom*, Vol. I, p. 611.

into prominence. The same report gives the consensus of the opinions of 400 American teachers, according to which, while the Japanese child is above the average of his fellow-pupils in drawing, music (!), writing, spelling, arithmetic and gymnastics, he falls below them in history, geography, the natural sciences, and in reading and languages.

I have tried to explain (with no effort at justification or defence) why the Japanese people are such poor linguists. They have to pay a high price for this defect. Indeed, if one wished to, the price might be calculated in dollars and pounds. Put on the debit side all the salaries that are paid to language teachers, all the numbers of hours in money-units spent by the boys and girls to learn English (or French or German for that matter), all that the nation pays for grammars and elementary reading-books and for the services of interpreters — and note the smattering of Pidgin English or doubtful French which, with the exception of a few notably good students, is all that the credit side has shown! What does the country gain by spending so much on foreign languages? We shall answer this question later. Nevertheless, it must not be forgotten that the nation incurs an immeasurable loss by its lack of proficiency in speech. Whoever has watched an international meeting of any kind will not fail to see Japan represented by larger numbers than any other country. Why? Because, whereas it is quite easy in other countries to get a man who can wield two or three linguistic weapons, it is rarely that a Japanese can command more than one foreign language, and when a two-edged sword or a trident is found, it not seldom happens that it is only a sword and not a swordsman! This explains why the Japanese attend international meetings “in rows and rows”, as a witty writer has said, “for the Japanese are no good in ones”.

XVI. *The Effect of the Study of Western Languages.*

1. Among the diverse effects of the spread of foreign languages, the most obvious is the addition to, or rather the expansion of, the vocabulary of the country. Addition means accretion, but expansion means the enlargement of the body of words in national use. The latter suggests an organic growth, whereas the former implies physical adhesion. Until foreign words became part and parcel of the native tongue, it is premature to speak of the influence of one language upon another.

A number of words — perhaps five hundred or so — have dribbled through commercial and learned channels into the vernacular. Most of the *Yogo* (Western words) are adopted on account of brevity (*e.g.*, pen, ink, match, lamp, coat, *savon*, *chapeau*, etc.); others for the nuance which can be expressed in Japanese only by circumlocution (*e.g.*, delicate, inspiration, romantic, sentimental, democracy, business-like, etc.), and still others for their technical precision. Of the last, scientific terms are usually translated, except, of course, those of Latin nomenclature; but terms used in sports or in navigation are very often used in the original, which in most cases is English. This is also true of some financial terms, *e.g.*, call-money, moratorium, etc. These Western words are subjected to the same process of selection as were the *Kango* in former times. As they are usually monosyllables, no serious phonetic violence is committed, except when the inevitable change is made of substituting “*b*” for “*v*”, or “*r*” for “*l*”. Merely to enlarge its vocabulary does not, however, add a cubit to the stature of a nation. Of what profit was the refinement of her speech to Arabia, when it “could diversify the fourscore names of honey, the two hundred of a snake, the five hundred of a lion, the thousand of a sword at a time when this copious dictionary was entrusted to the memory of an illiterate people?”¹

2. Far more important than the loan words are those which, though used in translated forms, are nevertheless of Western introduction. Simply as words they are *Kango*, but the ideas conveyed betray an Occidental source. Words of this character are exceedingly numerous, and are used to such an extent in the newspapers and books that a man of two genera-

¹ GIBBON: *Decline and Fall*, Ch. L.

tions ago — could he see them — would not understand half of what is printed. It affords no small amusement to read a translation of John Stuart Mill's Essay on Liberty, made in 1858 by Professor Nakamura. Erudite Chinese scholar as he was, he encountered insurmountable difficulties in finding suitable equivalents for many words in that work. Interspersed here and there throughout the book are parenthetical apologies, such as "This sentence awaits a future translator for elucidation", "A right word must be left for the future", etc. In the present day a schoolboy will find no difficulty in translating, with the aid of an ordinary dictionary, every single word (I say expressly "single word" and not sentence) that Mill has employed in this Essay. There has recently been published a Lexicon of New Terms from Western Sources, and it is remarkable into what varied and unexpected quarters these have penetrated.

In the expansion of Japanese vocabulary, it is the significance of words that is of consequence, and their pronunciation plays an entirely subordinate role. This disregard of phonetics is carried to such an extent as to affect even the pronunciation of proper names. Does it matter if Lincoln's name is pronounced "Rinkorun" or "Rinkan", as long as we know who he was and what he stood for? Does it matter if Alexander is called "Rekisan-O", or by any other epithet, as long as one's biographical knowledge is sure? Hence Bi-ko (Prince Bi) or Gu-shi (Mr. Gu) are appellations by which Bismarck and Gladstone are usually identified. At first sight this mutilation of great names strikes one as an offence; but second thought will recall the general practice of calling men by names to which, perhaps, they themselves would not have responded. The same person may be known in one country as Charles the Great, in another as Charlemagne, in the third as Carlomagno, in the fourth as Karl der Grosse, in the fifth as Karol Wielki, and so on.

3. The advantages of an alphabetic over a syllabic system of writing, especially when the latter is combined with the ideographic, are so apparent that one of the earliest effects of the introduction of Western knowledge was the plan of transliteration or of the so-called Romanisation; that is, of displacing the ideographs and the *Kana* by roman type. Associations have been formed for the propaganda of this idea, and though, on the whole, the movement does not make rapid progress, it is a cause that is sustained by some of the most influential and thoughtful people.¹

4. Among the many results of the study of foreign languages, there is one which, though it is gained as a by-product, is too valuable to be omitted. It is the intelligent study, leading to research, of the native language itself. The acquisition of a foreign language furnishes a good working knowledge of language in general, and opens for the student a portal, hitherto unsuspected, which may lead to the treasure-house of his own mother-tongue. As the study of Japanese art by an American, Professor Fenelossa, aroused an intelligent interest among the Japanese themselves, so has the scientific study of the Japanese language by an Englishman, H. B. Chamberlain, and by a German, Dr. Florenz, stimulated many a young Japanese to take up the philology and phonetics of his own people. In fact, Chamberlain was the first man to occupy the chair of Japanese philology in the Imperial University in Tokyo. We are strongly reminded of the truth of Goethe's saying: "A man who is ignorant of foreign languages is also ignorant of his own language".

5. When once a stone is set rolling, it sets other stones in motion. As the question of transliteration was discussed, and the conservatives objected to it, a middle course was suggested — the exclusive use of *Kana* — and this proposal raised the query: "Cannot the *Kana* itself be improved?" Yes, such sounds as "v" and "l" can be added by diacritical signs. Yes, even the form of *Kana* characters can be changed in such a manner as to make writing easier. Yes,

¹ TAYLOR says; — "If this attempt succeeds, as may not improbably be the case, we shall have under our own eyes an illustration of the process by which the Egyptian hieroglyphics and the Babylonian cuneiform were replaced, some two thousand years ago, by characters ultimately derived from the great Semitic alphabet." In the footnote, he adds: "This process is now going on in Annam, where a modification of the Roman alphabet is used by the French missionaries to replace the local Annamese syllabary, whose history is similar to that of Japan: having been derived from the Chinese writing by the selection and adaptation of a certain number of characters which are used phonetically." *The Alphabet*, 1883, Vol. I, p. 37. See also TANAKADATE, *Japanese Writing and the Romaji Movement*, 1920.

they can be so combined as to facilitate their perusal without going to the trouble of changing their form. As the use of the pen instead of the brush becomes more general, a new calligraphy may come into vogue. The invention of the fountain-pen may yet cause a revolution in the Far Eastern world of letters.

6. In recounting the benefits derived from the study of foreign languages, we must mention its pedagogic value as a disciplinary agency. The perusal of Chinese classics by means of *Kango* was a valuable asset in this respect, affording as much mental discipline to the Japanese youths as did Greek and Latin to the European. There are not a few educationists who would revive Chinese studies for that purpose alone. The age of Chinese classics is gone, and with them the severe disciplinarian. Its place is now taken by the English grammar, which, with its manifold rules and exceptions to rules, with its mysterious orthography and esoteric idioms, exacts of its neophyte the most strenuous use of his reason and memory.

7. Admiration for the West, brought about by the study of its tongues, has exerted a potent psychological influence in fostering the international mind, by which I here mean that attitude of mind which enables one to see things from the world point of view. On larger issues the Japanese think and speak in terms of the West. They can also objectify and project themselves among the nations of the world and see clearly where they stand. It is not too much to state that perhaps no nation, despite youthful jingoism and occasional reactionary outbursts, is more conscious of her position in the world than Japan, no nation is more introspective or more objectively self-critical. If in occidentalising her institutions and customs, and in her diplomacy, Japan may have committed comparatively few errors, it is, I believe, chiefly due to the fact that Western culture has become most accessible through the instrumentality of its letters. It is the cream of the West that flowed through them into the country. Just here is good reason for it to be truly grateful that oral language was not the chief channel of communication with the West. It is a fact not to be denied that, in the first days of her foreign intercourse, the Europeans who found their way to the Far East were not exactly the finest of their race. If their written languages introduced the cream, the verbal only would have brought the scum! One can imagine the disastrous effect on the Renaissance if its Florentine promoters had obtained their knowledge of Hellenic culture by actual contact with the Greeks, rather than by reading their ancient classics.

8. By far the most important influence of the study of a foreign language is its effect on the ideas, moral and political, of the student. Here I mean not mere intellectual acquiescence and acquisition but spiritual conviction. Language is a power, not only subtle but formidable. Frederick the Great might kick out the "ape" Voltaire, but as long as he used French, he could not escape the philosopher's influence. As by introducing *Kango* Japan came under the spell of Chinese mentality in the dawn of her history, so is she now drawn to the West through its literature. No remedy is so surely antidotal to xenophobia as a foreign tongue. We shudder to think what might have been the reaction in Japan to the anti-Japanese agitation of American politicians, if she had not had Anglo-Saxon predilections, fostered by language teaching. But this is only one side of the picture, albeit a very important side. Of far more lasting importance is the cultural value of a foreign tongue. In Japan, it is largely by virtue of the English language that her people are introduced into the thought of Western — and to some extent Eastern — peoples. We get acquainted with the great French writers — Taine, Guizot, Dumas, Daudet, Flaubert, Maupassant, Zola, Romain Rolland, Anatole France, Bergson — mostly through English translations. The same holds true with both Slavic and Scandinavian literatures, which are very popular in Japan. The names of Turgenieff, Tolstoi, Dostoievski, Gorki, Sologub, Sienkewicz, are as familiar as most eminent English and American authors. So, too, are the writings of Ibsen, Björnson, Hamsun, Strindberg. It is by no means infrequent that Buddhist scriptures are studied in English translations.

Think of this wide diffusion of Western thought as it affects not only the present but the future of the Eastern people. By innumerable avenues of influence, juvenile publications

and kindergarten stories — those of Grimm and Andersen, for instance — are changing the mental outlook of the coming generation. The English, the Italian, the Belgian and the Finn are all directing, if not moulding, the mind of the Far East through *Robinson Crusoe*, *Cuore*, the *Blue Bird* and the *Surgeon's Stories*.

With all this array of brilliant names before them — and I have not given a long list of English, American and German writers — is it any wonder that the youth of Japan should be overwhelmed by the feast which familiarity with a foreign language puts within their reach ?

Foreign languages, if they did not untie the tongue, certainly opened the eyes of the Japanese nation. Western ideas, coming in the form of literature, deeply stir the Eastern mind and impress it with the superiority of the Occident. 'Tis distance, be it in time or space, "lends enchantment to the view." The distant Past of China, with its great poets and philosophers, has a charm of its own, and the world may one day see the renaissance of her culture ; but for the immediate future the East must, as at summer eve, turn "the musing eye" to the West for light and hope.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO
THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series

INTELLECTUAL LIFE
IN THE
VARIOUS COUNTRIES

MEXICO

Biological Studies

by

CRISTOBAL RODRIGUEZ

Licencie-es-Lettres-Philosophie—Member of the Latin American Office
of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

NOTE

The object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing this series of pamphlets is to call attention to the problems of organisation and intellectual assistance to which each subject gives rise. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but desires rather to bring them to the notice of the public and to provide an opportunity for further suggestions.

BIOLOGICAL STUDIES IN MEXICO

By CRISTOBAL RODRIGUEZ

The Mexican Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry has provided us with one of the best and most complete contributions to the enquiry into intellectual conditions in Latin America which we have received ; and we are indebted to Professor Alfonso L. Herrera, Director of the Biological Department of that Ministry, for the information which has enabled us to give the following brief description of the present position of biological studies in Mexico.

The Biological Studies Bureau is a recent creation ; it was inaugurated on October 1st, 1915, by M. Pastor Roubaix, who was at that time Under-Secretary in the Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry. But here, as elsewhere, no entirely new departure was made, this Department being, as it were, the central bureau of other organisations which have hitherto had an independent existence, such as the National History Museum, the National Medical Institute and the Tacubaga Museum. The credit for bringing about this indispensable administrative centralisation belongs to M. Roubaix, to whom Mexico is already indebted for the scientific organisation of numerous exploring expeditions which have revealed the natural wealth of the country ; excellent collections have been exhibited in the museums, which have proved of the greatest use even to foreign explorers, such as, for instance, the United States Commission which explored California from May to August 1921, under the leadership of Mr. Joseph Slevin, accompanied by the Mexican Professors F. Contreras and C. Lopez.

This central organisation appears to have obtained excellent results, thanks to the energy of Professor Alfonso L. Herrera, who has been in charge of the Department of Biological Studies since its creation.

The principal aims of the Biological Studies Bureau may be summarised as follows :

(a) Scientific study of the flora and fauna of Mexico. The different species and varieties are classified not only according to their geographical distribution but also according to their value to medicine or to industry in general ;

(b) Organisation and upkeep of botanical gardens, natural history museums, aquariums, zoological gardens and other similar institutions devoted to scientific research and to the demonstration of the country's biological wealth.

Special mention should be made of the *National Natural History Museum* at Mexico City, which is visited every year by half a million persons. Mexicans have a special predilection for this institution, not only on account of the improvements which are constantly being effected, but also because of its antiquity. It is indeed closely bound up with the history of Mexico ; the Museum was created at the end of the eighteenth century by Antonio Maria de Bucareli, at that time Viceroy of New Spain (1771 to 1779), who decided that "all documents on Mexican antiquities preserved in the viceregal archives should be handed over to the Royal University as being the place where they can be of most use".

The National Museum contains sections of biology, botany, mineralogy and geology, each of which possesses a very fine collection mainly composed of the natural products of the country ; their preservation and improvement are in the hands of specialists.

We propose to give a special description of the biological section, which is perhaps the most valuable and interesting part of the work of the present director of the institution ; it is of capital importance from the scientific and educational point of view since "it enables the public to form a clear idea of the stages through which living creatures have passed in the process of development from the amoeba to Man and the visitor with an enquiring turn of mind is here able to examine to his heart's content the organic creatures which form the links between various zoological species" (MOISES HERRERA, *Boletín de los Estudios Biológicos*, Vol. II, No. 3, p. 338.)

Thanks to the untiring efforts devoted by Professor Alfonso L. Herrera to the development of this important section of the National Museum, its admirable collections have come to constitute a valuable instrument of education, enabling the public to form an idea of the various characteristics of the specimens exhibited and of their close relationship with other specimens of the various natural groups. The value of the biological section in arousing interest in the marvels of the living organisms of Nature is unquestionable.

(c) In addition to these two technical aims, the Biological Studies Bureau pursues a practical aim of no less importance, *i.e.* the popularisation of knowledge in regard to indigenous species which can be profitably used in industry and commerce. This is accomplished in the first place by means of lectures, in conjunction with numerous expeditions methodically organised with the help of an excellent biological map of Mexico, which is also the work of the Bureau ; we are informed that these lectures are greatly appreciated. Further — and this is perhaps of more immediate value — the specimens supplied by the Biological Studies Bureau are chemically analysed in the laboratories of other Departments of the Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry. Thus, numbers of biological species, derived from mountains, lakes

and rivers, as well as resinous, medicinal and dye-producing plants, etc., are not only made known to the general public but utilised industrially on a considerable scale. In this connection we may mention that the Department of Agriculture has for some time been actively engaged in seeking an effective serum against the bites of the poisonous snakes which abound in Mexico.

(d) Mention should also be made of the very important prophylactic and health work which the Biological Studies Bureau has undertaken in various parts of the country. For example, maps have been drawn up showing the districts which suffer from certain endemic diseases and which possess the necessary means of extirpating them. Special attention has been paid to the following matters : the malarial zone, infested by the pernicious *anopheles* mosquito ; the zone affected by bubonic plague, which makes its appearance somewhat sporadically and in very limited areas ; the disease known as *uncinariasis*, which especially affects the inhabitants of rural districts and miners; and, lastly, the goitre zone, which, as in Europe and Asia, is limited to mountainous districts at a great distance from the sea and deprived of the beneficial effects of sea air.

This campaign, which is based on experimental and objective research work accomplished in the course of periodical expeditions, is carried on by means of lectures in schools, museums, etc., showing, with the help of cinematograph films, the results obtained during these expeditions ; the work is supplemented by the distribution of medicine and of medical pamphlets at the instance of the Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry.

In the sphere of agricultural hygiene, mention should be made of the campaign initiated against the terrible pink cotton worm, which has wrought tremendous havoc both in Mexico and in the United States. The Biological Studies Bureau has successfully undertaken the preparation of chloropicrine, which constitutes an effective remedy against this plague.

(e) Among the activities of the Bureau should finally be mentioned the construction on strictly scientific principles of a zoological garden and of a botanical garden. Both gardens will be established in the woods of Chapultepec ; the first will have an area of 141,114 sq. metres and, in addition to specimens of the indigenous fauna, will contain representatives of the fauna of other countries. The botanical garden will have an area of 65,912 sq. metres. The construction of this garden should already be well advanced. Professor Alfonso L. Herrera informs us that : 'in addition to the work of levelling and laying out the grounds, two lakes and a valley have been dug, two plots have been set aside for shrubberies, and slopes for cactaceous plants have been prepared, a vegetable garden and shelters for animals have been constructed ; moreover, 6,532 botanical specimens have been planted,

including 4,094 cypresses in the Labyrinth ; 165 *pin*es, *thuyas*, *cryptomerias*, *araucarias*, etc., in the Pinetum ; 30 specimens including *cerei*, *echinocacti*, *mamillarias*, *opuntias* and *pereskias* ; and, lastly, in the classified section, 490 specimens belonging to 76 families of phanerogams and 50 families of cryptogams”.

The following details, which, though not of great consequence in themselves, are nevertheless significant, serve to show the importance attached to this biological work by the Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry.

The building occupied by the Biological Studies Bureau at No. 94, Calle de Balderas, in Mexico City, is valued at 300,000 Mexican pesos (750,000 gold francs), while the furniture, laboratory instruments and apparatus, the books (numbering over 50,000) and the natural history specimens are valued at 42,000 pesos.

The building occupied by the National Natural History Museum at No. 10, Calle Primera del Chopo, in the capital, is alone worth 200,000 pesos without reckoning the value represented by the natural history specimens, books, furniture, etc. it contains, which must amount to a like sum.

Lastly, the Herbarium, which will form the nucleus of the botanical gardens, contains about 50,000 indigenous plants, worth approximately 17,000 pesos.

The staff of the Bureau consists of 62 officials under the direction of Professor Alfonso L. Herrera, and includes a certain number of specialists, both men and women.

The Bureau corresponds regularly with numerous scientific institutions all over the world, including the Department of Agriculture, the Smithsonian Institution and the Carnegie Institution in the United States ; in Europe, the Zoological Society of France, the British Natural History Museum, the Royal Botanical Gardens at Kew, the Botanical Institute at Pavia, and the Royal Natural History Society of Madrid ; and, in Latin America, with the Argentine Medical Association, the Argentine Scientific Society, the National Museum of Rio de Janeiro and the Agricultural Institute at Santiago de Chile — altogether 120 scientific institutions.

Considered from a very general point of view, the study of biology in Mexico presents many different facts since it is pursued by private associations as well as by organisations set up for the purpose of accomplishing some special work or solving some special problem ; but the Biological Studies Bureau may be said to constitute in some measure the centre round which the biological activities of the whole country, actively supported by the State, revolve.

SPECIAL BIBLIOGRAPHY.

The Bulletin of the Biological Studies Bureau, as its title indicates, is the official organ which publishes the memoranda and monographs written on biological questions by the most highly qualified experts on the staff ; the following summary of two of its numbers will give some idea of its contents :

"Botanical Exploration on the South Coast of Oaxaca", by Professor Casiano Konzatti. — Note by Professor Teodomiro T. Gutierrez on the protection of white herons in Mexico. — "The National Natural History Museum", brief historical sketch by Professor Moises Herrera. — "Third Memorandum on the Physiology of the *"Cuy"* acclimatised in the Valley of Mexico ; its Development and Growth", by Dr. Fernando Ocaranza. — "A New Species of *Mamillaria*", by Professor Isaac Ochoterena. — "The Cuapinole", by Professor Juan Manuel Noriega. — "Contribution to the Study of the Bacterial Flora of Mexico", by Dr. Manuel Perez Amador. — "The Mammoth or *elephas primogenius*", by Professor Aurelio del Rio. — "The Poisonous Snakes in the National Natural History Museum", by Carlos Cuesta Terron. — Alphabetical Index to "*La Naturaleza*", Vol. III (Vol. II, No. 3, January 1918).

"Contribution to the Study of the Fresh-Water Pearl-Bearing Oyster", by Professor Francisco Contreras. — "Special Biological Conditions affecting the Inhabitants of the Municipalities of the Federal District", by Luis G. Cabrera. — "The Principal Tortoises and their Capture". — "Special Study of the Mullet Fishery". — "Contribution to a Monograph on the Erpetological Fauna of the Lower Californian Peninsula", by Carlos Cuesta Terron (Vol. III, No. 4, March 1920).

We know of about 60 works of this nature ; in addition to the above publications, pamphlets have been brought to our notice on subjects of great interest from the point of view of Mexican biology ; they were published under the auspices of the Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry. Among these may be mentioned the following, which seem to us the most important : "*Monografia sobre el Elephas Demm*" (a coleopteron), illustrated by engravings, by MOISES HERRERA ; "*Importacion de algunos cérvidos en la alimentacion, y monografia del venado "Bura"* (illustrated), by CARLOS L. LOPEZ ; and "*La Perforestacion de los medanos en la zona litoral del Estado de Veracruz*" (also illustrated), by Don LUIS G. TORRES.

The two latter authors are at present collaborating with Professor Alfonso L. Herrera, whose monograph entitled "*La Biologia en Mexico durante un siglo*" (Mexican

biology during one century) has been of great service to us ; the following is an extract from this work :

“The study of biology has made great progress in the course of the last century. The early days of attempts at classification, insufficient co-ordination, accumulation of material and lack of perspective have now been left behind, and the various elements of study have been logically combined under the direction of the Biological Studies Bureau, which scientifically explores the ground, makes known its discoveries in regard to fauna and flora and their practical utilisation, and trains the biologists and naturalists of the future, while the University undertakes the theoretical study and teaching of the science.”

LEAGUE OF NATIONS.
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

ENQUIRY
INTO THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK.

SECOND SERIES.

INTELLECTUAL LIFE
IN
VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

NORWAY.

NATURAL SCIENCE.

BY

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NOTE .

The sole object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing these reports is to draw attention to the questions of organisation and intellectual co-operation which arise in relation to each of the subjects dealt with. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but merely to draw the reader's attention to them and to provide an opening for fresh suggestions.

CONTENTS.

	PAGE
<i>Introduction.</i>	By KRISTINE BONNEVIE, Professor of the University of Christiania 5
<i>Physics I.</i>	» SEM SEELAND, Professor of the University of Christiania 8
<i>Physics II.</i>	» LARS VEGARD, Professor of the University of Christiania 10
<i>Chemistry.</i>	» ELLEN GLEDITSCH, Assistant Professor of the University of Christiania. 12
<i>Meteorology.</i>	» TH. HESSELBERG, Director of the Norwegian Meteorological Institute, Christiania 13
<i>Geology.</i>	» J. SCHETELIG, Professor of the University of Christiania 15
<i>Botany I.</i>	» H. H. GRAN, Professor of the University of Christiania 17
<i>Botany II.</i>	» JENS HOLMBOE, Professor of Bergen's Museum 18
<i>Zoology I.</i>	» KRISTINE BONNEVIE *, Professor of the University of Christiania . . . 18
<i>Zoology II.</i>	» AUG. BRINKMANN, Professor of Bergen's Museum 21

* In collaboration with the custodians of zoological institutions in Trondhjem, Stavanger, and Tromsø, as regards the said institutions.

NATURAL SCIENCE IN NORWAY

BY

KRISTINE BONNEVIE

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INTRODUCTION.

In answering the question put to me with regard to the present state of Natural Science in Norway, I have been fortunate enough to obtain the assistance of specialists in the various branches, who have proved their interest in intellectual co-operation by giving, each in his own line, a short review of the work being done there and of the present condition of the workers in the various branches.

Before, however, entering upon these special topics, it will be of interest to attempt a short survey of the general conditions of Natural Science work in Norway, conditions which govern its development.

It should first be remembered that Norwegian Science is a relatively young branch on the tree of human knowledge, the only University in Norway having celebrated its first centenary in 1911. Before its foundation, Norwegian students had to go to the University of Copenhagen, an education which, of course, involved great expense which relatively very few Norwegians could afford. During the eighteenth century academic culture was represented virtually by the clergymen alone, and thus we find the well-known *Bishop Gunnerus*, of Trondhjem, and others, as the pioneers of Natural Science in Norway. Gunnerus himself, during his travels on the Trondhjemsfjord and along the coast of Northern Norway, made many discoveries concerning marine fauna and flora, and he instructed the clergymen of his diocese to use every opportunity of making observations and of collecting objects of interest from the point of view of Natural Science. Thus he founded the "Natural Museum of Trondhjem" belonging to the "Kgl. Norske Videnskabers Selskab" (Royal Norwegian Academy of Science). His name is at present borne by the Researchship of the Biological Station of Trondhjem (*see below*).

By reason of its geographical position, as well as of its physical conditions, Norway is a real laboratory for research work. When, therefore, the Norwegian University was opened at Christiania, in 1811, the most various problems were, by Nature itself, put before the scientists connected with it.

The mountains and the valleys of our country, its "fjords" and its long and interesting coast-line, surrounded by thousands of skerries and islands, were all calling for *Geologists* to unravel their mysteries—a call which has been followed notably by men such as *B. M. Keilhau* (1798–1858), *Th. Kjerulf* (1825–1888) and *W. C. Brögger* (1851). The work of these prominent scientists has been concentrated especially upon the "Kristiania-felt," a field of investigation which, as regards its geology and mineralogy, has been characterised as one of the utmost interest.

■ A flora like that of Norway, covering a field from the seashore up to the mountain glaciers, and from the boreal region of Southern Norway to the Arctic, with its short but brilliant summers, represent for the *botanist* a whole series of scientific problems of general interest. The foundations of our knowledge in this field were laid by *M. N. Blytt* (1789–1862), the first professor of botany

of the Norwegian University. Among his many pupils should be mentioned in the first rank his son, *Professor A. Blytt* (1843–98), whose theories upon the development and immigration of the flora have made his name well known among scientists concerned with the general problems of botany.

Along the whole west coast of Norway, the Gulf Stream forms the basis of an abundant animal life and plant life, which also plays a very important part in the natural conditions of the great Norwegian fisheries. Here, again, Nature called for scientists, and in this domain the work was taken up, not so much by the zoologists of the young University, as by a clergyman living on the West coast of Norway, isolated from the scientific world, but in the near vicinity of the mysterious, and until then practically unknown, life of the lower animals in the sea. This was *Michael Sars* (1805–69), who has been generally acknowledged as one of the world-pioneers of marine zoology. He proved the existence, in the marine fauna of Norway, of southern forms carried northwards by the Gulf Stream, together with specimens of Arctic life, which even in the most southern part of Norway may be found in the great depths of the fiords.

His son, *G. O. Sars* (b. 1837), sharing and developing the work of his father, succeeded in making a connection between science and practical life through his discoveries concerning the eggs and early life of cod and herrings, as well as with regard to the life and development of the microscopical world of crustaceans and other small organisms, floating with the currents along the Norwegian coast and forming so important a part of the fish-food that the success of our fisheries is very greatly dependent upon them. This practical line of scientific work was later carried further by *Dr. Johan Hjort* (b. 1869), who, as the leader of the Norwegian Fisheries Survey, and in co-operation with representatives of other nations, rendered great services to the scientific exploration of the currents and biology of the Northern Atlantic Ocean.

The geographical position of Norway as an outpost of Europe towards the Arctic, with its midnight sun in the summer, and with its long winter nights, was a call to explorers also in other branches of science. The whole *Arctic region*, which in so many respects still constituted a *terra incognita*, was an attractive field of investigation for descendants of the old Norse Vikings, who in *Fridtjof Nansen* have found a representative combining in his person the courage and strength of a Viking with a true scientific spirit. His successor, *Roald Amundsen*, has, as is well known, extended his explorations also to the Antarctic Pole.

The *Northern Light* (Aurora Borealis), the moving rays of which make the dark winter nights of Norway a brilliant and fascinating spectacle, naturally became an object of the most careful investigation by Norwegian physicists. In this field *Professor Kr. Birkeland* (1867–1917) took the lead, first boldly raising the problem and then laying down the lines of its solution. The same problem has also been, and is still being, attacked from the mathematical side by *Professor Carl Störmer*, and from the physical side by *Professor Lars Vegard* (see Physics). The phenomena of the Northern Light have, through the efforts of these scientists, ceased to be among the mysteries of the polar night, and have been subjected to the searchlight of modern science.

Even in other branches of cosmic physics, the geographical position of Norway has formed the basis of scientific investigations. This is the case, for instance, with *Meteorology*. The long and mountainous coast-line turning towards the open Arctic and Atlantic Oceans offers excellent opportunities for studying the rise and development of clouds and cyclones, while, at the same time, the population of this coast-line are, by reason of their occupation as fishermen, especially dependent upon the weather. These two facts have certainly played a part in furthering the striking progress of Norwegian meteorology within the last ten years. But this progress has in the first instance been determined by the physical theories of *Professor V. Bjerknes* (b. 1862), who, together with assistants and collaborators, has succeeded in establishing new and promising methods of forecasting weather (see Meteorology).

Finally, it should be mentioned that the geographical configuration of Norway, with its narrow isolated valleys, in which the same families have been living and can be traced back through hundreds of years, makes our country a good field also for the *study of the human race*. Anthropological, ethnographical and genetical studies of various elements of the Norwegian population are, therefore, at present playing a considerable part in our Natural Science.

Many other branches of investigation might have been added as coming also under the head of "national" problems. The problems here mentioned, however, are not only national, all of them having a bearing also on the solution of general scientific problems. Much of the scientific work performed at our University is, at the same time, fully international in material as well as in method.

Norwegian scientists will, I am sure, never be in want of interesting and attractive scientific problems. These are placed before our eyes in abundance wherever we go. Such problems need, however, for their solution, not only scientists, but also laboratories, teaching institutions for securing the recruitment of scientific workers, and last, but not least, the resources necessary for the carrying on of research work.

Besides the University of Christiania, other centres of scientific research have arisen—at *Trondhjem*, where the Museum of *Gunnerus* existed even before the University; at *Bergen*, with its Natural History Museum and laboratories, the leaders of which are also teaching candidates for University degrees; and, further, the museum of *Tromsø*, which concentrates its work upon investigations of Arctic fauna and flora, and that of *Stavanger*, the geographical situation of which makes it a very good place for ornithological studies.

"*Norges Landbrukshøiskole*" (The College of Agriculture) was erected at *Aas*, near Christiania, and "*Norges tekniske høiskole*" (Polytechnic Institute of Norway) was opened at *Trondhjem* in 1910.

With regard to *financial resources*, Norwegian science has, until quite recently, had to work under very hard conditions, the salaries of scientific men having, until about ten years ago, been relatively very low, while, at the same time, no funds existed which could effectively support their work. A change set in, however, at the end of last century, when, in honour of *Dr. Nansen's* return from his North Polar Expedition, a scientific fund was founded, bearing his name. This fund has, mainly through the admirable work of *Professor W. C. Brögger*, steadily increased; at present, its capital has reached the considerable sum of about four million crowns, and it includes a whole series of separate funds for special lines of scientific research work.

In 1911, when the centenary of our University was celebrated, a new fund, "*Jubilaumsfondet*," was founded, which has now reached an amount of 700,000 crowns.

While the Nansen fund distributes every year fellowships to scientists throughout the country, the grants of the "*Jubilaumsfond*" are given only to the functionaries of the University.

Finally, a few years ago, the Norwegian Storting granted a sum of three million crowns to form the "*Forskningsfond*" (Research Fund), the interest of which is distributed in relatively large sums for the support of scientific undertakings on a large scale.

A fourth fund even ("*Varekrigsfondet*") was founded in 1920 for the special support of applied science.

Thanks to the very important assistance given by these funds, the work of Norwegian scientists has, in the last ten years, been greatly facilitated. We have every reason to appreciate the foresight displayed by both State and University authorities in securing capital for the support of science, at a moment when it was still possible to do so, and in such a way that it can be kept alive throughout the period of general depression which is now following the world-war.

After these observations about the general conditions of Norwegian science, we may now turn to more special topics, treating separately the following branches of Natural Science:—

Physics, Chemistry, Meteorology, Geology, Botany and Zoology.

PHYSICS.

I.

For a long time, the only institute for research and systematic advanced teaching of physics in Norway was the *University of Christiania*. In the year 1910, however, a new polytechnic institute of university standing, the *Polytechnic Institute of Norway*, was opened at Trondhjem. The programme of this institute includes both systematic teaching and research work in physics. According to this programme, the institute has been equipped with a physical laboratory for both purposes mentioned above.

As may be expected, the foundation and growth of the institute is closely connected with the progress of technical sciences in our country, with the rapid growth of our industry and with its rising economic importance.

Industrial development, on the other hand, has received a very strong impetus from one of our leading physicists, the late *Professor Kr. Birkeland*. His discoveries and inventions relating to the oxidation of nitrogen in the electric arc gave rise to our large-scale saltpetre industry of the last decade.

A great variety of other industries have followed in the wake of this one, and have drawn the attention of the population to the immense natural resources of energy which we possess in our waterfalls, and through the inter-action which always exists between a highly developed industry and the fundamental technical sciences—physics and chemistry—this industrial growth has further drawn our people's attention towards those branches of science themselves, and has thrown into strong relief their paramount importance to all forms of industry. Even if the goodwill towards science and learning in general thus created in our people is of a somewhat platonic character and can scarcely be regarded as resulting from a deep and full understanding of the rôle which science has to play in modern society, it has at least influenced very favourably the attitude both of the daily Press and of the public authorities towards its demands. Consequently, our Government is, broadly speaking, guided by the same goodwill, and has made, for the benefit of scientific work, all the appropriations allowed by our economic resources. In addition to such appropriations from the State, we have in the course of the last decade obtained valuable research funds by means of private donations.

The public interest in scientific work and progress thus displayed has, as may be expected, especially covered all forms of applied science, the practical use of which is apparent to everybody.

In spite of such an attitude of goodwill from government and public opinion, Norwegian physicists have up to the present worked under very unfavourable conditions. In fact, our physical laboratories are very poorly equipped. In particular, the physical laboratory of our University is so inadequate that it does not even afford the necessary facilities for the elementary teaching of students, to say nothing of research work.

Partly as a consequence of the great difficulties our physicists have met with in the domain of experimental work, they have up to the present preferred problems of a *geophysical* or *cosmo-physical* nature.

Another reason for their preference for problems of the latter kind may be found in the very nature of our country. With its exceptional climatic conditions, its long coast-line from the 58th to the 71st degree N.L. and its northern situation, it offers a highly interesting field for the study of various geophysical problems, *e.g.*, the polar aurora, the earth's magnetism and the dynamics of the ocean and the atmosphere. In all these branches of study, Norwegian investigators have worked with considerable success, and have even been able to play a leading part in international scientific progress. Indeed, as far as international science is concerned, the best contributions of our physicists are certainly those dealing with geophysics.

Geophysics alone, however, have not absorbed all their interest and energy. In spite of the poor laboratories, some of our physicists have, even in experimental work, reached out beyond the

scientific horizon of our own country. In this connection it will be sufficient to mention the remarkable experiments of the late *Professor Kr. Birkeland*, illustrating the nature of aurora borealis and other phenomena which have a fundamental bearing on the various hypotheses of cosmogony. In the history of science, these experiments will perhaps play an even greater part than his fundamental researches on the oxidation of nitrogen.

I may further mention *Professor V. Bjerknes's* juvenile researches on electric oscillations, and the life-work of his father, the late *Professor C. A. Bjerknes*, in research in the field of force in fluids agitated at some point by pulsating or oscillating forces. The last-named experiments, which were of their kind fundamental, were carried out in some of the most modest cellar-rooms of the University and with very poor experimental facilities.

The energy and industry in scientific work thus displayed by the older physicists are characteristic also of the younger men. Some of them, headed by *Professor Vegard*, the successor of *Kr. Birkeland*, have taken up experimental work with no less energy than their predecessors, and have succeeded in contributing results of international value to such modern branches of physics as crystal analysis by X-rays, the constitution of the atom, etc.

But in spite of all the efforts of a couple of earnest investigators, we shall have in this country no solid foundation for a modern school of physics until we have secured laboratories which correspond to modern demands.

The author of the present report has consequently considered it a duty to give much time and energy to the struggle for such laboratories. This struggle will, before long, be crowned with success. Two years ago the Storting made the appropriations requested for the building of a new physical laboratory at the Polytechnic Institute of Trondhjem. Moreover, some appropriations have been made for a new laboratory at the University. The erection of the laboratory at Trondhjem will be finished within the next year or two.

In connection with the plans for the laboratory—which will be in every respect adequate to modern requirements—the author has also worked out plans for a reorganisation both of teaching and research work in physics at the Polytechnic Institute, aiming at giving each of these branches of sciences as free and independent a position as possible among the technical and other scientific curricula represented at the institute.

As regards the proposed new physics laboratory of the University, it is hoped that building may be begun next year.

With these two new laboratories, we shall in a few years—as far as laboratories are concerned—possess all the facilities, for which we can reasonably hope, for a national school of physics. Our physicists will no longer have such heavy odds against them as they actually have at present compared with physicists elsewhere, and, thanks to the strong intellectual powers of our people, the writer trusts that this development will mark something of a new era in the history of science of Norway.

In addition to the general characteristics here given, the following statistics and facts may finally serve to elucidate the actual state of physics in our country. The scientific staff of the University laboratory consists at present of two professors and three lecturers. The salaries (10,000–13,000 Kr. for full professors, 4,500–8,500 for lecturers) are paid from the official salary lists. The corresponding numbers for the laboratory of the Polytechnic Institute at Trondhjem have been: one professor, one lecturer and two teaching assistants.

All these professors and teaching assistants are supposed to be capable of conducting research work.

Besides the two laboratories referred to, we have few institutes which can offer to physicists situations where research work is supposed to be done. One such institute is the *College of Agriculture at Aas*, with a professor of physics and a physical laboratory chiefly for teaching purposes. Another is to be found at *Bergens Museum* and its geophysical institute, likewise with a professor of physics (chiefly for research work) upon its staff. For the last-named institute a small research laboratory for geophysics and physics is under construction.

In this connection, I may further mention our meteorological institutes, where a couple of physicists find employment of a scientific nature, and our higher schools, some of which have small physical laboratories for teaching purposes.

It should be understood, however, that, on the whole, a very limited number of physicists can secure a livelihood by means of research work. This fact, of course, strictly limits the influx of post-graduate students of physics. For the greater number of such students practically no other livelihood is offered than that of a lecturer at some higher school, and the regular advanced teaching of physics at the University has up to the present been organised as a part of the curriculum for teacher's certificate examinations.

In the last decade, however, the conditions for making a living out of research work in physics have decidedly improved. The number of professorships at the State institutes has been more than doubled. Moreover, the interest in scientific industrial research is rapidly growing and will, as soon as economic conditions permit, no doubt result in the establishment of research laboratories and in an increasing demand for physicists for industrial research.

To meet such demands, it has been proposed, in the most recent schemes for physics teaching at the Polytechnic Institute mentioned above, to organise a course of study leading up to a special degree in physics or technical physics.

At the same time, according to the law of September 23rd, 1921, a new certificate examination for degrees in physics and other special branches of science and letters has been organised at the University, in addition to the existing lecturer's certificate examinations.

We can thus say that there has been, on the whole, a decided improvement in the general conditions of physics teaching and research, and that this improvement will probably be maintained, provided that the present economic depression does not weaken our economic strength over a longer period than is anticipated.

Our economic resources, it must be remembered, are, to say the least, far from being inexhaustible, and, apart from the consequent limitations on scientific work, our physicists, as well as all our other men of science, will have always to fight against the disadvantages inevitable in a more or less isolated scientific milieu.

(Signed) SEM SEELAND.

PHYSICAL INSTITUTE,
UNIVERSITY OF CHRISTIANIA.
June 16th, 1923.

II.

In recent years physical science has, as we know, made very rapid progress. The discovery of new facts and of new and fundamental principles of the constitution of matter has created new fields of research in practically every branch of pure and applied physics.

The line of physical research which has been followed in recent years at the Physical Institute of this University forms, in a sense, a natural extension of the field of research traversed by my predecessor, *Professor Birkeland*, the object of his study having been the elementary properties of electricity and matter, and their application to cosmic phenomena. New results, however, as well as new methods have in many respects given new directions to the work.

The work which has been carried out at my institute, partly by myself and my collaborators, and partly by the assistants as well as by the students, has been in connection with the following subjects :

A great deal of research work has been done on *cosmic problems*, especially the *aurora borealis* and allied phenomena. The results have been published partly in the book "The Position in Space of the Aurora Borealis," and partly in a number of papers which have appeared in English, German, French and American journals.

In *pure physics* investigations have been carried out on the *structure of matter and electricity*. During the last six years a number of papers has been published on the *atomic constitution of solids* studied by means of the defraction of X-rays by the crystals. The X-ray analysis has also been applied to the solution of practical problems.

Important experimental and theoretical investigations on the *magnetic properties of bodies* have been carried out by *Dr. O. Frivold*, while *Dr. J. Holtsmark* has been conducting important investigations on the *emission of light and soft Röntgen rays*.

A number of students have taken their "special degree" in physics, and they have, as a rule, been doing investigations on problems falling into line with my own field of research.

Most of our work has had a purely scientific aim. The results have been published in scientific journals and proceedings, and I should say that our work is not very widely known to the public. The public is, however, beginning to realise the importance of introducing scientific methods into all branches of practical work, but there is still much to be done in our country in order to secure an intimate co-operation between science and industry.

So far as the development of physics depends on the material and facilities for work, I think that the building of a new institute at the University will mark perhaps the most important step towards the better standing of physics in our country. Within four or five years we should, I think, be installed in our new institute.

Since there have been but a few active workers in pure physics, and since most of the research work has been carried out at the University, there has been no organisation of physicists covering the whole country. At the Physical Institute of Christiania we have a *Physical Society*, the main object of which has been to give accounts of new investigations and discoveries, and to discuss physical problems. The society has not yet published any of its proceedings. In most small countries the question of publication tends to present difficulties. A number of papers in physics are published in "Kristiania Videnskapsselskaps Skrifter," and in geophysics and cosmic physics a series of papers are now published under the title of "Geophysiske Publikationer." But these publications are neither so regularly nor so quickly distributed as is desirable, and, if we wish to make our results more rapidly known to the world, we must publish them in some of the principal journals of Great Britain, Germany, France or the U.S.A.

Although the activity in physical research in our country has not been very extensive, I think, nevertheless, that the work which has been done has in several branches made valuable and important contributions to the development of natural philosophy.

In a small country like ours, situated on the border of civilisation, it will always be difficult for men of science to maintain contact with the scientific world and to follow the rapid progress of science. Thus we feel deeply the lack of that stimulus and continual re-orientation which is the privilege of those who are working in or near the big centres of science.

It is clear that a country like ours would welcome any institution or organisation which could bring us into more intimate and personal contact with other scientific workers. International associations and conferences may be a great stimulus, but not many scientists have an opportunity of visiting them.

For the progress of physics in our country, I think that an intimate intercourse between the various Scandinavian physicists would be of the greatest value. A Scandinavian association of physicists has now been constituted, and will hold conferences, as far as possible, every year. The best way of getting into touch with sciences, however, is to travel and to study abroad. Any young man going in for physics ought to study a couple of years abroad. Further, the more advanced students should occasionally be given the opportunity of studying abroad for one or two terms.

(Signed) L. VEGARD.

PHYSICAL INSTITUTE,
UNIVERSITY OF CHRISTIANIA.
May 1923.

CHEMISTRY.

Instruction in chemistry—in the extended use of this term—and the study of chemistry is in Norway carried on at the *University*, at the *Polytechnic Institute*, at the *College of Agriculture* and at *Bergen's Museum*; of these the two first-named are the most important.

At the Polytechnic Institute chemical engineers are trained. Here also there are opportunities for research work and for acquiring the degree of Doctor of Chemistry. At the University all the physicians and pharmacists are being taught chemistry, as are the teachers of the higher schools. Some of the latter have a thorough education in chemistry, viz., chemistry is their principal course. Here also specialists in chemistry may finish their studies with the degree of "Magister" or "Doctor." Many of the latter obtain employment at the institute, as assistant instructors, or in the scientific work.

Even in a neutral country such as Norway chemistry was profoundly influenced by the war. The difficulties of communication, the impossibility of procuring from outside certain chemicals and foodstuffs, tended to create a new chemical industry. This, of course, also caused a change of position of that branch of science. This extraordinary activity in the chemical industry, however, declined very shortly after the end of the war, and the present period of economical depression is paralysing the industry.

This, of course, has caused a decline in the number of students educating themselves for industrial work. This fact appears most strikingly at the Polytechnic Institute, where the number of students is greatly diminished. At the University there are at present just as many—or more—chemical specialists as before the war. The number of medical, pharmaceutical and science students is constantly increasing at an approximately even rate.

At present the Chemical Institute of the University is not large enough to accommodate the regular number of students. In spite of summer courses and of the transference of certain sections of the course to hired rooms, it is not possible to provide accommodation for all those who want to register as students. In such circumstances it is evident that it is especially difficult to provide accommodation and working conditions for specialists. This, again, is a great danger to recruitment. In this connection it should, however, be mentioned that a new chemical institute has been planned, the erection of which will presumably begin in the near future. The war, to some extent, brought to public opinion a better understanding of the importance of chemistry. Nevertheless, a certain amount of improvidence prevails in so far as recognition and funds find their way more easily to applied than to pure chemistry.

During the last eight years, however, several new positions have been created; thus a lecturer in physical chemistry and in radio-chemistry and also one in colloidal chemistry have been appointed. Want of room, however, prevents the two latter from being utilised to the required extent. Some scholarships for the study of chemistry abroad have also been created. One of these is awarded every year by the University, the capital being the gift by a private citizen ("Apotheker Stillesens legat"), and one is awarded every year by the Storting—in the first instance, for five years—for the study of chemistry in England—"Ramsay Memorial Fellowship."

In a small country like Norway, it is of importance that scientifically working chemists may have an opportunity of studying abroad, and the University is doing its best to facilitate this for the younger functionaries. Leave of absence is readily allowed for half or even whole years; free substitution is seldom allowed, but financial assistance in paying the substitute is often granted.

On the whole, we are well supplied with periodicals, so that we have an opportunity of keeping ourselves informed with regard to progress in our branch of science. Much more difficult is the provision of modern equipment. The institute cannot itself afford the latter, but special scientific funds, created partially by the Government, partially from private sources, have rendered good service. For the younger chemists, especially, the help which these funds have rendered during the past ten years has been of immense importance.

Among active organisations in the chemical line may be mentioned "Norsk Kemisk Selskab" (the Norwegian Chemical Association). The seat of the association is at Christiania, and it is the

natural meeting-place for scientific and industrial chemists. It is associated with "L'Union internationale de la Chimie pure et appliquée," and thereby brings us into touch with chemical associations throughout the world.

Most frequently our papers are published in foreign periodicals, but partly in Norwegian ones such as "Videnskapselskabets skrifter," "Archiv for Mathematik og Naturvidenskab" and "Tidsskrift for Kemi og Bergvæsen."

(Signed) ELLEN GLEDITSCH.

CHEMICAL INSTITUTE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHRISTIANIA.
May 1923.

METEOROLOGY.

The meteorological service has developed greatly since the war. The causes are several. (1) During the war meteorology proved necessary for the military operations, and this produced an increased interest in meteorological science. Especial mention may be made of the importance of meteorology in aerial navigation. (2) This augmented interest had an international character and the consequence was that the various meteorological institutions in all countries obtained more funds. They were thus able to send each other more detailed weather reports than before. Now, therefore, we can secure better information, not only from our own country, but also from abroad, and we thus have a better basis for our forecasts. (3) The development of radiotelegraphy has made it possible to arrange for the international exchange of meteorological observations in a more effective manner than could be obtained by wire. By means of radiotelegraphy also we get weather reports from areas whence some years ago it was impossible to obtain information for the use of the weather service. As regards the Norwegian weather service, I should especially mention the importance of the weather reports obtained from ships in the Atlantic and from our Arctic stations on Spitzbergen, Baren Island, Jan Mayen and East Greenland. (4) Last but not least, we have the advantage of using the new methods for forecasting weather developed by *Professor Bjerknes* in collaboration with the meteorological service.

With improved forecasts, public interest in our work has increased. Since by means of the improved net of meteorological stations, we are at the same time able to give more detailed information on the weather for the use of agriculture, fishing, etc., we are well supported by public interest.

To ensure further progress we need: (1) the recruitment of young men with scientific interests, (2) funds and (3) improvement in the international code for weather telegrams according to our new methods, so that the weather messages from abroad may contain what we need.

Between the meteorological institutes and the other geophysical institutes in Norway there is a collaboration, voluntarily organised and very effective. Further, we try to maintain as close relations as possible with physics, mathematics and mechanics.

The work of the meteorological institutes is partly the purely scientific one of enlarging our knowledge of the atmosphere and of the laws ruling it and of improving our working methods in accordance with new scientific results; further, the practical work of making forecasts and climatological summaries and of answering all questions concerning weather and climate.

In the year 1922 the various departments made official enquiries as to the use of meteorological work. The replies which have come in up to date entitle us to state that the forecasts are of great practical value. The attitude of the press is the same as that of the public. The State pays for all the work, the annual cost of which is now about one million Norwegian crowns. It is not possible to estimate the commercial value of the work, but it may be considered probable that the storm warnings alone are responsible for savings to a value exceeding the cost of the meteorological work.

Only men with scientific interests, who have studied at least mathematics and physics at the University, should be employed as meteorologists. But it is very difficult to obtain such recruits for meteorological work, partly because of the lack of such students, but chiefly because they get

better incomes as teachers in the schools. It would be of importance for the recruitment if there were at the University a professor of geophysics so that the students might get systematic lectures in this branch of science.

The technical education of meteorologists is carried on in the meteorological institutes themselves.

The meteorological service is organised as follows :—

The Norwegian Meteorological Institute (Christiania)					
Forecasting	Met.	Met.	Geophysical	Met.	Arctic
Central	Observatory	Observatory	Institute	Observatory	Observatories.
(Bergen).	(Bergen).	(Aas).	(Tromsö).	(Haldde).	

Further, there is at Bergen a meteorological section of the Geophysical Institute, independent of the meteorological service and employed on exclusively scientific work.

The Norwegian Meteorological Institute is the central institution and has all the climatological work and the forecasting for Eastern Norway. The forecasting central of Bergen issues forecasts for Western Norway. The Geophysical Institute in Tromsö is subcentral for the Arctic work and issues forecasts for Northern Norway. Further, all these institutes and observatories have scientific aims. It is proposed to erect a forecasting central also in Trondhjem, but, on account of the cost and the lack of meteorologists, the plan is not likely to be carried out in the near future.

All the meteorological institutes are paid for by the State and none is in any financial difficulties.

The meteorological institutes publish the following periodicals :—

- “ Jahrbuch des Norwegischen Meteorologischen Instituts.”
- “ Nedbören i Norge.”
- “ Arsberetning for de norske meteorologiske institusjoner.”
- “ Oversikt over temperatur og nedbör i Norge.”
- “ Daily Weather Charts.”

And, in collaboration with the other geophysical institutions :—

- “ Geofysiske Publikationer.”

The foreign institutes exercise a great influence on our work, scientifically by their publications, and practically by the weather reports which they send us. On the other hand, our work has a similar influence on meteorological work abroad. Especial mention should be made of the interest with which our new methods of forecasting have been received in other countries.

We obtain information concerning meteorological work (1) in our own country, through our national organisation, (2) from the rest of the world through the international meteorological organisation or directly from foreign institutes.

The international meteorological organisation is an old one and has, upon the whole, worked well.

We exchange publications with the foreign meteorological institutes, and the International Meteorological Committee arranges meetings, where matters of organisation are discussed. Further, scientific meetings are sometimes arranged by individual countries.

With a view to a better organisation of these scientific meetings, the International Research Council has a section for geophysics. Up to the present, we have not joined this union, chiefly because it has not a real international character. But we need such an organisation.

Meteorological science will develop on the basis of mathematics and physics and by means of improved technical auxiliaries. The chief practical aim of meteorology is to forecast with certainty, not only the weather of to-morrow, but of a more distant future. We are still far from this end, but if we keep our eyes on this object, we shall certainly make progress.

(Signed) TH. HESSELBERG.

NORWEGIAN METEOROLOGICAL INSTITUTE,
CHRISTIANIA.
March 1923.

GEOLOGY.

Under the term "geology", in the following, is also included crystallography, mineralogy, petrology, stratigraphy, palæontology and applied geology.

Since the year 1910 a remarkable change is to be noted in the position of geology in Norway. Up to that time this branch of science was represented at the University of Christiania only, with one chair for mineralogy and geology and one chair for applied geology and mining. As a result partly of the rapid development of various independent branches of geology, but chiefly of the important influence exercised on public opinion by the prominent professor, W. C. Brögger, the scientific staff for geology was doubled in the years 1910–17, and consists at the present time of four professors, two lecturers and five assistants.

In the year 1910 the *Polytechnic Institute of Norway* was established in Trondhjem, and geology is at that institute represented by one professor and one lecturer. At the third centre of science in Norway, *Bergen's Museum*, the mineralogico-geological institute, shows a similar progress and the staff consists now of one professor, one lecturer and one assistant.

In the same period, the staff of the "Geological Survey of Norway" was also doubled, and this progress is due to a growing public understanding of the importance of geological research for practical purposes (mining industry, agriculture, etc.).

According to the above statement, geological work in Norway shows a marked progress in the period since 1910.

The greatest part of the work of Norwegian geologists is original research work, and a review of the publications during the last ten years proves that original investigations are carried on in all branches of geology. By means of public lectures at the University and the other colleges, and through the publications of the Geological Survey, geological knowledge is made accessible to the public.

The public is, of course, interested in the practical results of geological research, and the Press in this country is always open to what the geologists may have to say to the public. A geological fund belonging to the "*Fridtjof Nansen's Fund*" and the "*Sulitjelma Fund*" have been established for advancement of geology.

It is a matter of course that geologists should be to a great extent employed as experts; but the commercial success of geology depends in some degree on the general position of the market and of the mineral industry.

Specialists in geology are recruited chiefly from graduates of geology, but also from mining engineers, and, according to the statement given above, the recruitment seems to have been more satisfactory in recent years.

The economic condition of workers in geology and its branches at the University and the other institutes is the same as that of other scientists. The State geologists at the Geological Survey have a scale of pay equivalent to that of engineers in the public service.

The following list includes the most important and active organisations :—

A. ASSOCIATIONS.

"*Norsk Geologisk Forening*" (Norwegian Geological Society), with 125 members (including twenty foreigners). The Society holds six or seven meetings a year, at which as a rule original papers are read. The Society has since 1905 published "*Norsk Geologisk Tidsskrift*" (Norwegian Geological Review), Vol. VI, printed 1922).

B. RESEARCH INSTITUTES.

"*Norges Geologiske Undersøkelse*" (Geological Survey of Norway), established 1858. At the present, the staff consists of one director, eight geologists and one chemist. This institution publishes geological maps and a periodical series, "*Norges Geologiske Undersøkelses Skrifter*," No. 1 (1891), No. 92 (1922).

“ *Statens Raastofkomite* ” (State Committee for Mineral Resources) undertakes research work on domestic mineral raw materials for industrial purposes, under the leadership of *Professor V. M. Goldschmidt*, Director of the Mineralogical Institute of the University, Christiania.

“ *Norges Jordundersökelse* ” (Norwegian Survey of Soils), connected with the Agricultural College of Norway at Aas.

C. EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENTS.

Mineralogical Institute of the University, Christiania.

Geologico-palæontological Institute of the University, Christiania.

Mineralogico-geological Institute of Bergen's Museum.

Geological Institute of the Polytechnic Institute.

Geological Institute at the College of Agriculture.

At all these educational institutes, scientific research work is performed besides the educational work.

D. MUSEUMS.

Mineralogico-geological Museum of the University, Christiania.

Palæontological Museum of the University, Christiania.

Geological Section of Bergen's Museum.

Mineralogical Section of Trondhjem's Museum.

Geology as such is an international science, but geologists commonly perform their research work on material from their own country. The national work of geologists must always be influenced by the international progress of science; the want of such influence would mean stagnation. Geological work in foreign countries plays, therefore, and must play, a great part in the work of Norwegian geologists.

On the other hand, it may be said that the work of the Norwegian geologists in the course of the last hundred years has been of great influence abroad, thanks to prominent Norwegian geologists such as *B. M. Keilhau* (1797–1858), *Th. Kjerulf* (1825–88), *W. C. Brögger*, *J. H. L. Vogt*, *V. M. Goldschmidt* and others.

Information concerning geological work in Norway is conveyed by means of the “ Norwegian Geological Society,” where new papers are read, and through exchange of papers between workers. The above-mentioned institutes have libraries with complete collections of Norwegian and Scandinavian geological literature.

Throughout the rest of the world our information concerning geological work is conveyed through the reviews and periodical publications, which we obtain partly by purchase and partly by exchange with the Norwegian geological publications. The more important papers of Norwegian geologists are, as a rule, written in one of the most common foreign languages, and Norwegian geologists exchange to a great extent their own papers with prominent geologists abroad.

The geological institutes of the University possess a good library with a complete series of the most important geological reviews and periodicals from abroad. The libraries of the younger institutes at Aas, Bergen and Trondhjem are not so complete. It is an urgent matter to improve those libraries.

The geological societies in the Scandinavian countries (Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Finland) have, since the year 1918, organised “ Scandinavian Geological Meetings ” every two years for the study on the spot of geological questions of common interest.

The various national organisations of workers in geology are the national geological societies, and they long ago formed an international organisation, *The International Geological Congress*, with meetings every third year.

(Signed) JAKOB SCHETELIG.

GEOLOGICAL MUSEUM,

UNIVERSITY OF CHRISTIANIA,

May 1923.

BOTANY.

I.

The state of botanical work in Norway shows slow, but even progress. We have *botanical gardens* in Christiania, Bergen and Aas, and a small one in Tromsø; *botanical laboratories* in Christiania, Bergen and Aas, a *botanical museum* in Christiania and botanical departments of the Natural History Museums of Bergen, Trondhjem and Tromsø.

The University.—The *botanical garden* of Christiania was the scene (1850–70) of the experiments of *Professor Schübeler* in the acclimatisation of plants. On the whole, however, our botanical gardens are used only for teaching and for demonstrations to the public.

The *botanical laboratory* in Christiania has not yet obtained a building of its own, but is lodged in a private apartment; it is not, therefore, fit for physiological work. A new laboratory building is planned.

The scientific staff of the laboratory consists of one professor and two lecturers, while four specialists also are permitted to have their tables in the laboratory. Courses in *plant anatomy* are held in a special room, with room for about fifteen students.

The College of Agriculture at Aas is a good laboratory for *plant physiology* for the professor, *Dr. Hansteen Cranner*, and has class-rooms for practical courses in anatomy and physiology.

The *botanical museum* in Christiania (Director, *Professor N. Wille*) is new, built in the last years before the war. It contains valuable collections of Norwegian plants, and gives very good opportunities for research work. The exhibition for the public is not yet installed.

For the study of marine algae there are adequate facilities in the *biological stations at Dröbak* (near Christiania), at *Herdla* (near Bergen) and at *Trondhjem*; while studies of plant plankton can be made in connection with the fishery investigations in Bergen.

We have in Norway no special botanical society, the botanists taking part in the meetings of "Biologisk Selskap" (Biological Society). Scientific papers are published in the periodicals of the Scientific Academies of Christiania and Trondhjem, as well as in that of Bergen's Museum.

Norwegian botanists have no special difficulty respecting information upon the international progress of the science; the periodicals "Botanisches Centralblatt" and "Botanical Abstracts" keep us in touch with the new publications, and we can by correspondence and exchange of papers obtain the information necessary for our work. We have no reason to complain that our work is not known and appreciated in foreign countries. We could wish, however, that the international book trade could be better organised; it would be very useful if a commercial book list like Friedlander's "Naturæ Novitates" could be kept internationally up to date.

Before the war an "Association internationale des Botanistes" existed, publishing the periodicals "Botanisches Centralblatt" and "Progressus Rei Botanicae"; the association still exists, but the "Centralblatt" is sold to Germany, and the members no longer pay an annual contribution to the association. This association ought to be revived as a means of arranging collaboration for special purposes.

The annual budget is just sufficient to pay current expenses. More extended scientific operations can hardly be started without extraordinary grants.

(Signed) H. H. GRAN.

BOTANICAL LABORATORY,
UNIVERSITY OF CHRISTIANIA.
June 1923.

II.

The botany of "Bergen's Museum" has of recent years been divided into two independent departments: *Botanic Laboratory* (anatomy and physiology of plants) and *Botanic Collection and Garden* (systematic botany, geography of plants). The work of each of these departments is conducted by a professor.

The botanic collection has, beside herbaria (about 200,000 species), a systematically arranged study collection, open to the public. The botanic garden contains specimens of such plant families as can be raised out of doors in our climate; but the space is very limited, as is consequently also the selection of plant species. In a small hot-house a selection of exotic species is being raised.

The botanic laboratory has been installed in a suite of dwelling-rooms, and is furnished with the necessary laboratory equipment.

In both these departments scientific work is carried on and directed mainly to the solution of problems raised by the nature of Western Norway; at the botanical collection, in the first place, the plant geography of Norwegian vegetation and, at the botanic laboratory, chiefly physiological and practical botanic problems are studied.

Both of the botanic professors give lectures to the students, preparing the latter for examinations and degrees corresponding to those of the University of Christiania.

In both of the said departments the want of space is one of the greatest difficulties to be overcome. It is, however, to be hoped that this situation may be considerably improved for both departments in the near future.

(Signed) JENS HOLMBOE.

BERGEN'S MUSEUM.
April 1923.

ZOOLOGY.

I.

Zoology is taught at the *Zoological Laboratories* of the University and of Bergen's Museum. Three *biological stations* exist, one of which belongs to the University and is situated at *Dröbak* on the Kristiania-fjord. Another station belongs to Bergen's Museum, lying at *Herdla*, an island in the skerries of the west coast. A third station, finally, on the *Trondhjems-fjord*, belongs to the Academy of Science of that town. *Zoological museums*, or departments of zoology in large museums, exist in Christiania, Bergen, Trondhjem, Tromsø and Stavanger.

These different centres of zoological teaching and research work will be considered separately.

The University.—The *zoological laboratory* has within the last ten years undergone an extension of its scientific staff, which now consists of one professor, two lecturers and one assistant. At present the professor of zoology is also the head of the "Institut for Arvelighetsforskning" (Institute of Genetics), founded in 1916, at first working only with apprentice assistants, but from 1918 also with a lecturer.

The public takes a considerable interest in the results of zoological, and especially also of genetic work, this interest being proved by the attendance at summer courses and public lectures, and also through articles in the Press, as soon as results touch upon questions of general interest. Investigations on human heredity carried out on the great peasant families of the isolated valleys of Norway have, indeed, met with the greatest readiness and goodwill from the population investigated.

Besides the great funds mentioned in the introduction, a special fund, "Robert Collett's Legat," was in 1913 left by the great Norwegian ornithologist whose name it bears, to be used for the support of zoologists working on questions concerning Norwegian fauna.

The recruitment of zoologists is intimately connected with University teaching, in so far as all students who have chosen zoology as their main topic should, before taking their last degree,

hand in a scientific paper. During the world war the recruitment has, as is the same in other branches of science, met with considerable difficulties because of the relatively low salaries paid to scientific workers. Through the immense rise of the cost of living, young people have during the war been obliged to abandon an occupation so little lucrative as that of scientific work. The last two or three years have, however, seen undoubted progress in recruitment.

Besides the Zoology group of the "Academy of Science" the following organisations exist: "Biologisk selskap" (Biological Society), with about 100 members, and "Norsk forening for arvelighetsforskning" (Norwegian Union of Genetics), with forty-four members, mostly scientists and physicians.

According to their contents, zoological and genetic papers are published partly in "Videnskaps-selskapets Skrifter" (Christiania) or in more special periodicals, such as "Archiv for Matematik og Naturvidenskab," "Norsk Entomologisk Tidsskrift," "Norsk Fiskeritidende" (all edited in Christiania), "Norsk Ornithologisk Tidsskrift" (Stavanger), but to a great extent also in foreign periodicals.

Relations with foreign zoologists are constantly maintained by means of the exchange of papers, by correspondence, or by personal collaboration. A number of foreign periodicals are subscribed for by the laboratory; others can be obtained through the University Library. The exchange of periodicals is, however, considerably more developed in the case of British and German zoological science than in the case of relations with France. Upon this point progress would be very desirable.

Among Norwegian zoologists whose work has been of influence abroad, one name should be mentioned in the first rank, viz., that of *Professor G. O. Sars* (b. 1837). His investigations into the development and migrations of cod and herrings, into the Arctic mollusca, and, above all, into the lower crustaceans, which play so great a part among the pelagic fauna of all lakes and oceans, have placed him in the first rank of zoologists working on systematic lines. Even now, with his 86 years of age, *Professor G. O. Sars* is continuing his work with indefatigable interest. The younger generations of University zoologists are engaged in investigations of various kinds. *Dr. Johan Hjort*, since 1922 professor at the University, is continuing the exploration of oceanic currents, which before the war was carried on by him, as head of our *Fischerie's Survey*, in collaboration with the other nations bordering on the North Sea. In the zoological laboratory, or in connection with it, investigations are made especially on embryology and heredity, but also systematic investigations upon various branches of Norwegian fauna.

The one great difficulty of our work is the want of space and of financial resources for an effective enlargement of the laboratory. A new zoological institute is, however, planned, and it is hoped that within the next ten years this plan may be realised.

The Biological Station of the University at Dröbak is situated on the *Kristianiafjord*, about two hours journey from Christiania. It was founded in 1895, and has room for about ten students. Its director is at present *Dr. Hjalmar Broch*, one of the lecturers in zoology. The station is open for students during two summer months only, July and August. But during the whole year specialists may visit it for short excursions. Many foreigners have in the past used the opportunity afforded them of making investigations at this station into marine fauna or flora.

The Zoological Museum of the University, which since 1910 has had its own buildings at some distance from the laboratory, has a scientific staff of one professor and three superintendents of special sections of the museum. Thanks to *Professor R. Collett* (1842–1913), who was the curator of this museum during a long series of years, the ornithology of Norway is here especially well represented.

The Natural Museum of Trondhjem, belonging to the "Kgl. Norske Videnskabers Selskab" (Royal N. Academy of Science), is older than the University, having been founded by the famous *Bishop Gunnerus*, already mentioned in the Introduction. The very remarkable fauna of the *Trondhjemsfjord*, which contains a multitude of coral reefs, is well represented in the collections of this museum.

The scientific staff consists of two superintendents, one of whom is also the director of the *Biological Station of Trondhjem*. This station was opened in the year 1900. It is a State institution in so far as it is administered under a State Department. Its budget is, however, composed of

grants given partly by the State, partly also by the community, or by more or less private institutions of Trondhjem.

Besides purely scientific investigations upon the marine biology of the Trondhjems fjord, this station is engaged also in the more practical work of plaice-hatching. This latter side of its activity is followed with special interest by the public, and it is a well-known fact that the plaice fisheries have in the districts round Trondhjem been considerably augmented within the last ten years. The laboratory of the station is good. Since, however, the curator, *Dr. O. Nordgaard*, is at present the only scientist attached to it, the laboratory cannot be kept permanently open for students, although it has proved to be a favourite place for shorter excursions. Before the war many foreigners, especially Russians and Germans, visited the station. At regular intervals of a few years the students of zoology of the University also visit the station in order to study the marine fauna of Trondhjemsfjord, which, with its abundance of living coral reefs, is of extreme interest. To this biological station belongs an excellent researchship, ready for award since 1920, and carrying the name of the famous bishop, "*Gunnerus*." The leader, *Dr. Nordgaard*, is especially interested in the investigation of the most easily fossilising groups, such as molluscs and bryozoans, and in comparing their recent distribution and conditions of life with fossils of the same groups, thus making contributions to a study of the development of this fauna after the glacial epoch. The results are published in "*Det Kgl. Norske Videnskabers Selskabs Skrifter*" (Trondhjem).

The zoological department of *Stavanger Museum* is at present managed by a conservator, assisted by a preparator, who, however, works for all of the three departments of the museum. The working expenses of the department are covered by the general estimate of the museum, which at present amounts to about 16,000 kroner, to be distributed between the three departments, when the common working expenses have been paid. Formerly, this department collected species of animals of all classes to be employed as exhibition material for the public; but during recent years the work has been concentrated upon the collection of certain species of animals, chiefly from the district round the museum. The present conservator, *H. Tho. L. Schaanning*, has thus mainly concentrated his activity upon ornithology, and hopes in future to be able to develop the zoological department of the museum into a central institute of ornithological research, one of his aims being the erection of a biological station for research work on the life and development of birds. *M. Schaanning* has also started experiments in bird protection in certain parts of the district ("*Jæderen*"), experiments which have met with great interest and sympathy, and which, it is to be hoped, will lead to good results.

Natural Museum of Tromsø.—This museum, which is situated at a latitude of nearly 70 degrees, has, of course, its field of investigation in the Arctic. Although its collections include specimens of ethnographical, geological, archæological and botanical interest, zoology has always been placed in the first rank in the work of this museum. Thus *Dr. Sparre-Schneider* has, by means of his investigations and collections, laid a solid foundation for our knowledge of the Arctic land-fauna of Norway. Many problems present themselves to the zoologists of Tromsø Museum, especially problems regarding the adaptation of the various species to the conditions of life in this region, with the long and dark winter night and the relatively short summer lighted by the midnight sun.

A difficulty of this scientific centre is, in the first place, its isolated position in the far North, which makes it difficult to keep there continuously a competent scientific staff. A further development of its scientific library and its laboratory equipment, and a budget permitting the functionaries of the museum, through regular visits, to keep in personal contact with more southern institutions, will be the best way of facilitating the solution of the many interesting problems of an Arctic museum.

All this is now being attempted, and it is to be hoped that this field also of zoological research will, in the comparatively near future, be effectively attacked by Norwegian zoologists.

(Signed) KRISTINE BONNEVIE.

ZOOLOGICAL LABORATORY,
UNIVERSITY OF CHRISTIANIA.
June 1923.

II.

Bergen's Museum.

The zoological department of Bergen's Museum has, since 1907, developed from being only a collection with a staff of two conservators to a series or more or less independent institutions, viz.:—

- The Zoological Exhibition for the public ;
- The Scientific Collection ;
- The Zoological Laboratory ; and
- The Marine Biological Station.

The *Zoological Exhibition*, which, besides representatives of the various systematic groups, contains also a complete collection of Norwegian vertebrates, is very popular. This is proved by the very considerable number of visitors, as well as by the valuable specimens (rare animals) sent to the Museum from the country districts.

The *Scientific Collection* is a very rich one, and especially representative in respect of the marine fauna of Northern Oceans. It contains, among others, one of the largest European collections of whale embryos and skeletons.

As part of the scientific magazines, two specific collections have recently been founded. One contains skeletons of Norwegian domestic animals, chiefly of horses, sheep and dogs. A regular and valuable augmentation of this collection is secured by means of a Government Bill, making it a duty for horse-keepers to hand in to the museum osteological material of animals, the pedigrees of which are found in the stud-books. This material will after some time be of the greatest value for a study of the development of the race of horses as well as of the inheritance of race characteristics.

The other collection contains all skeleton remainders of Norwegian vertebrates brought by archæologists, and forms an interesting supplement to those of recent times.

Zoological Laboratory.—The professorship of zoology ("Den Sundt'ske zoologiske lærestol") was established in 1906, and since that time a course, corresponding to that of the University, has been given. The number of students is, however, not great—a natural consequence of the fact that a whole scientific faculty has not yet been definitely established.

Biological Station.—As early as 1891 the first biological station was erected in the near vicinity of the Museum. With the expansion of the city of Bergen, however, the pollution of the sea-water has necessitated the building of a new station, which was opened in 1922, and is most favourably situated at *Herdla*, one of the islands of the Norwegian skerries, two or three hours journey from Bergen. This new biological station is administered by the professor of zoology ; it has seventeen working tables, open to scientists of all nations.

International courses in marine biology were before the war annually arranged by Bergen's Museum, and visited by students from the various countries of Europe. As soon as possible, such courses will again be opened.

A description of the station is found in "Bergen's Museum's Aarbok, 1922".

In accordance with the development of zoological activity the *scientific staff* has in later years been augmented. In 1912 the staff consisted of one professor with two conservators. At present (1923) the professor of zoology is assisted, besides by the two conservators mentioned above, by one amanuensis at the laboratory and another at the biological station.

The international relations of Bergen's Museum are very considerable, and consist in a considerable exchange of its periodical, "Bergen's Museum's Aarbok," with foreign books and periodicals. The scientific collections of the museum have always willingly been placed at the disposal of foreign scientists, who in considerable numbers have used the opportunity of investigating the type-specimens of marine forms. Also the laboratories of the biological station have to a great extent been used by foreign scientists.

The war has, of course, diminished these international relations, the economic difficulties of several European countries having hindered a rapid renewal of the connections broken through the

war. In recent years, however, an improvement in the situation is distinctly noticeable, especially in respect of relations with West European countries.

The exchange of material and publication has, as far as possible, been continued with all nations during the war, in order to facilitate the work of scientists in the belligerent countries, and also in order to emphasise the neutral and international character of science.

(Signed) AUG. BRINKMANN.

BERGEN'S MUSEUM.

June 1923.

* * *

As will be seen from the above statements upon various branches of Norwegian Natural Science, there are certain traits common to them all.

The financial resources for research work can, at present, thanks to the scientific funds, be said to be satisfactory, and so is the opportunity offered to young specialists to go abroad to foreign Universities.

The salaries of scientific workers have been considerably raised within the last ten years, that of a professor now reaching kr. 13,000, while the lecturers are grouped with the teachers in gymnasia with salaries from 5,000–8,000 crowns. But even now the salaries are low in comparison with the high cost of living, so that during the war the recruitment of scientific specialists has met with considerable difficulties. The period of economic depression characterising the last two or three years has, however, caused a remarkable increase in recruitment.

In all branches personal relations exist with foreign scientists, and the exchange of papers and periodicals may, upon the whole, be characterised as satisfactory.

More official relations exist between the northern countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden), and there are meetings at more or less regular intervals, the so-called "Skandinaviske Naturforskermöter," the seventeenth of which is being held at Gothenburg this summer.

The scientific institutes of Norway have generally been represented also at the various International Congresses, which before the war were held at regular intervals in the various branches of Natural Science. A general wish exists among Norwegian scientists that international co-operation may again develop upon a truly universal basis.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO
THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series

INTELLECTUAL LIFE
IN THE
VARIOUS COUNTRIES

SWITZERLAND

THE UNIVERSITIES

By

Gaston CASTELLA

Professor at the University of Fribourg,
Expert on the Committee.

NOTE

The object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing this series of pamphlets is to call attention to the problems of organisation and intellectual assistance to which each subject gives rise. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but desires rather to bring them to the notice of the public and to provide an opportunity for further suggestions.

THE UNIVERSITIES OF SWITZERLAND

By GASTON CASTELLA.

Switzerland has seven Universities, all of them official cantonal institutions¹. Arranged in alphabetical order, they are : the Universities of Bâle, Berne, Fribourg, Geneva, Lausanne, Neuchâtel and Zürich. The University of Fribourg has a dual character which is peculiar to it : it is both Catholic and international ; its founders intended it to be — and it is — an international Catholic centre for higher education.

Seven Universities for a country of approximately 3,800,000 inhabitants is undoubtedly a large number, especially as this figure does not include the Federal Polytechnic School at Zürich, the School for Advanced Commercial Studies at St. Gall — which are both *Hochschulen* — and the Free Faculties of Theology². The number would indeed be much too large if our Universities were attended only by Swiss, and, as will be seen in the course of this brief paper, the question of the number of our Universities does constitute a problem, especially now that the number of students in our faculties has diminished and the expenditure of our cantons increased in consequence of the war and the post-war crisis.

Like most Swiss institutions, our Universities are singularly diverse in character ; there is no definite type of *Swiss* University, as there is of French, German or English Universities. While the organisation of the Universities of German Switzerland is very similar to that of the German or Austrian high schools, the Universities of French-speaking Switzerland recall to a certain extent the French system ; Fribourg and the Federal Polytechnic School have been the most eclectic. Reference will be made subsequently to certain special characteristics of these organisations.

Of the seven Universities, two have replied directly to the questionnaire of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation : Zürich and Fribourg. The Zurich report, which is signed by M. Hafter, the Rector, is a model document of its kind ; the Fribourg report is shorter, but none the less very full. In the case of the five others, we have had recourse to the *Office central universitaire suisse* at Berne, which is under the direction of M. E. de Waldkirch, Reader in the Faculty of Law at the University of Berne, for whose courtesy and promptitude in supplying us with information on several occasions we cannot sufficiently express our sense of obligation. The present report will be divided into two parts. In the first part, replies will be given to the principal questions in so far as the information at our disposal enables us to do so, and the reader will be referred to the annexed tables in order to avoid repeating in the text figures which are sufficiently eloquent in themselves ; in the second part, an attempt will be made to point out certain general characteristics and to emphasise the importance of various University problems affecting our country.

I.

1. The historical facts which require to be mentioned are not numerous, but they show the great influence which the *religious crisis in the sixteenth century* and the *liberal movement in the nineteenth century* exercised over Switzerland. While the Higher Schools of Bâle, Geneva

¹ The main features of their organisation are described in a small pamphlet, entitled "The Universities of Switzerland", published by the *Office central universitaire suisse* (30 Spitalgasse, Berne), which will be referred to in the course of this paper. The *Bulletin universitaire*, published by this Office, gives University news.

² The Federal Polytechnic School, the School of Engineers incorporated with the University of Lausanne, and the Technical Schools (*technicums*) will be examined in a special report. Another report will deal with the *Handelshochschule*, which is under the direction of the municipality of St. Gall, and with the Cantonal and Municipal Schools of Commerce.

and Fribourg were from the first more or less definitely international in character, those of Berne, Lausanne, Neuchâtel and Zürich tended rather to be national. And if we consider the origins of the Protestant Faculties, they explain the characteristics which differentiate the reforms of Calvin from those of Zwingli and which give to the former a distinctive European appeal which the latter lack. It was not until the second half of the nineteenth century — after the political transformation which turned Switzerland into a federal State — that our Higher Schools assumed a less cantonal character. The inhabitants of the different Swiss Cantons gradually began to enter into closer relations with one another and then there came the influx of foreigners who were attracted partly by the ease with which they could take up residence in our country and partly by our liberal traditions with regard to the right of asylum.

Bâle, which came into prominence owing to the Council of 1431-1449, was endowed with a University by Pope Pius II (Æneas Sylvius Piccolomini). The Foundation Bull of November 12th, 1459, granted it the same privileges as those of the University of Bologna ; the solemn inauguration took place on April 4th, 1460. The town, which had adopted the Reformation in 1529, placed the University under its control and gave it new statutes, which the professors and students swore to observe on September 20th, 1532 ; but the privileges of the High School subsisted until the beginning of the nineteenth century. In 1818, the State abolished them and took over the administration ; in 1833, the Canton of Bâle was divided into two half-cantons (Bâle town and Bâle district) after violent political struggles, and the duty of maintaining the University fell upon the town alone. It admirably discharged its duties, thanks to the unfailing civic spirit and generosity of its rich and highly educated bourgeoisie.

The Higher School at *Berne* was established in the year in which the town became Protestant. The Government decided on February 12th, 1528, to found an institute of advanced study for ecclesiastics ; the courses began in 1535. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, under the patrician regime, chairs were established in law, rhetoric and mathematics in addition to theology, while in 1787, a *Neues Institut für die politische Jugend* was created, in which law and history were taught. In 1805, an Academy was formed, with four Faculties : theology, law, medicine and philosophy. It was considered insufficient by the Liberals, who, in 1831, advocated reorganisation of higher education. The law of March 14th, 1834, which is still in force, established a real *University*. In 1874, during the struggles of the *Kulturkampf*, a Faculty of "Catholic-Christian" or "Old Catholic" Theology was added to the others. In 1875, the University was reinforced by a college for the training of teachers ; in 1900, a Faculty of Veterinary Medicine was established, this subject having been previously taught in the Faculty of Medicine ; and in 1921, an Institute of Dental Medicine was created.

Fribourg was not endowed with a University till the end of the nineteenth century, although the idea of instituting "advanced Catholic studies" in Switzerland was contemporaneous with the Catholic revival consequent upon the Council of Trent and the foundation of Jesuit colleges in Switzerland. A modest school of law had existed since 1763, which was established, in the words of the foundation decree, "to educate the patrician youth in the sciences necessary to the art of government". In 1817, the friends of Father Girard, the celebrated educationist, prepared a plan for founding an Academy on the model of the German Universities. The Jesuits, who were adversaries of Father Girard, organised soon after their return to Fribourg, in 1818, an *Academy*, designed to supplement the studies carried on in their celebrated college. The Academy had chairs of theology, law, philosophy, exegesis and Hebrew. It was intended to add courses in natural science and medicine, and thus to establish a real University, and the Jesuits were collecting funds for this purpose in France when the Revolution of 1830 upset all plans. The idea was only taken up again after the decisive victory of the Catholic Conservative-Democratic Party, led by M. G. Python, one of the members of the present Government. In October 1886, a Decree of the Grand Council (the legislative authority) allocated 2,500,000 francs (the profits from the conversion of the public debt) for the purpose of founding a University at Fribourg. In 1889, a further decree made provision for the inauguration, in the autumn

of that year, of the Faculties of Law and Philosophy. The year 1890 saw the opening of the Faculty of Theology, which was entrusted to the Dominican Order by arrangement with the General of that Order. In 1895, the Faculty of Science was inaugurated. The University Organisation Law bears the date of December 1st, 1899.

Geneva is indebted to Calvin for its celebrated Academy founded in 1559. The part played by it in the spread of Calvinism and in the progress of letters and science is of world-wide importance. In 1809, the Academy consisted of three Faculties, Theology, Letters and Science, to which a Faculty of Law was added in 1825. The Academy became a University in 1873. In 1914, a special Faculty was created for "Economic and Social Science"; and, in 1918, the Dental Institute was attached to the Faculty of Medicine.

Lausanne also owes the foundation of its University to the Reformation. The Pays de Vaud, which had formerly belonged to Savoy, was conquered in 1536 by the Bernese, who held it until 1798. It had to accept Protestantism, and an Academy was established in 1537 for training theologians. Chairs of Law, History, etc., were instituted in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries — during the period of Bernese rule. The Pays de Vaud became the Canton of Vaud in 1803 and a law, passed in 1837, reorganised the Academy, which contained Faculties of Theology, Law and Philosophy (Letters and Science). After the founding of a school of pharmacy, the Academy was raised to the rank of University by the Law of May 10th, 1890.

Neuchâtel owes its High School to Frederick William III, King of Prussia — the Kings of Prussia had been Princes of Neuchâtel since 1707 — who established an Academy in 1838. The Academy was suppressed in 1848 when the independence of Neuchâtel was proclaimed, but it was re-established in 1866 and endowed with three Faculties (Letters, Science, Law), to which a Faculty of Theology was added in 1893. It became a University by a Law dated May 18th, 1909.

In *Zürich*, a High School was founded in 1525, which was destined by the reformer Zwingli to be used for the training of theologians. Chairs of Mathematics, History and Law were instituted during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. A "*Politisches Institut*" was set up in 1813 to train specialists for administrative careers. The Liberal movement, which was very strong in Zürich, led to the passing of the law of September 28th, 1832, by which the University was founded. Courses were opened on April 29th, 1833, in the four Faculties of Theology, Law, Medicine and Philosophy. In 1862, the Faculty of Philosophy was divided into two sections: (1) philosophy, philology and history; and (2) mathematics and natural science. In 1898, the Dental Institute was definitively affiliated to the Faculty of Medicine. A new Faculty of Veterinary Medicine was established in 1901. In 1903, a section of advanced commercial studies was included in the Faculty of Law. In 1914, the two sections of the Faculty of Philosophy were each raised to the rank of an independent Faculty.

2. There are accordingly Faculties of Protestant Theology at Bâle, Berne, Geneva, Lausanne, Neuchâtel and Zürich; of Roman Catholic Theology at Fribourg; of Catholic-Christian or "Old Catholic" Theology at Berne; of Law in all the Universities; of Medicine everywhere, except at Fribourg and Neuchâtel; and of Philosophy, Letters and Science everywhere. (It has already been pointed out that the grouping of these latter branches of learning differs in the various Universities.) Economic and Social Science is taught in a special Faculty at Geneva. At Fribourg, by a decision of the Roman Curia, the University may confer degrees in Canon Law, although it does not possess a special Faculty of Canon Law.

The main lines of administrative organisation, which vary in the seven University cantons, are as follows: the Universities enjoy the "academic freedom" dear to Germanic countries; in particular, they recruit their teaching staff by invitation and by conferring of degrees. They are, however, all placed *qua* official institutes under the direct control of the Cantonal

Department of Public Instruction — which corresponds to the Ministry of Public Instruction in States which are more highly centralised than our Confederation. It is the cantonal Government which appoints the professors and, in the case of certain cantons, even confirms the election of the Rector after he has been chosen by his colleagues. The Rector, the Deans of the various Faculties and the Senate — which is composed in some cases of all the professors and in others of a certain number of them — are the University authorities. Every University has a Chancellor's Office of greater or lesser importance, which has many duties to perform and serves incidentally as an *information bureau*.

The organisation of the courses and the *granting of degrees* vary to some extent in the different Universities, but the general features are everywhere the same. The student is free to choose the courses which he desires to attend. There are many different curricula, but their purpose is only to serve as guides. Permission to take a particular examination is given to any student who has attended certain courses for a specified number of *semesters* (the academic year is divided into two *semesters*). In all the Universities the students pay *class fees* (*Kollegengelder*) of five or six francs per hour per week every semester — except at Fribourg, where they only pay a fixed fee, with the addition of a laboratory fee in the Faculty of Science. Additional fees are charged for the laboratories and clinics, together with small sums for the use of the libraries, sick insurance funds, etc. On entering the University, the students pay a matriculation fee of from ten to twenty francs.

Any student not under eighteen years of age possessing a certificate of maturity (*baccalauréat*), which may be in classics, science or modern languages according to the University, or even according to the Faculty, can matriculate at a Swiss University. Foreign certificates and degrees are recognised for the purpose of matriculation in Switzerland if they are valid in the country in which they are granted. *Foreign* students are treated on the same footing as Swiss, provided that their previous education and their conduct are satisfactory. Conditional matriculation may be granted. This is made definite if the student fulfils, within a given period, certain conditions proving that he has completed his general education, *e.g.*, at Fribourg if he passes an examination in Latin.

Matriculation alone does not confer the right to take examinations for University *degrees*. These degrees consist of the *licence* (master of arts degree) and the *doctorat*. The former may be taken in all the Universities of French-speaking Switzerland and at Fribourg ; it is exceptional in the Universities of German Switzerland. The *doctorat* is conferred by almost all Faculties. To obtain a Doctor's degree, the candidate must spend at last six semesters in University study (including two at the University where the examination is held), submit a thesis and pass an oral examination. At the Universities of Geneva, Lausanne and Neuchâtel, the thesis must also be argued. When printed, two hundred copies of the thesis must be given to the University for purposes of exchange. In the Swiss Faculties of Theology, Letters (Philosophy), Law and Science, the thesis is generally an example of the student's early professional work and is written by him at the age of 23-25. In the Faculties of Medicine, the thesis is, as a rule, written immediately after the State professional examination.

3. A list is given in Document 1-a, which is in the records of the League of Nations, of all the scientific institutes, seminaries, etc., attached to the Universities ; a mere list of their names would require a whole catalogue. It may be affirmed that, as a general rule, these institutes are well organised and work satisfactorily. The number of students varies, of course, according to the special subjects taught and the University ; but, as in other countries, it is in the schools or laboratory that scientific methods and scientific knowledge are acquired. The *records offices*, *museums* and *libraries* are controlled, not by the Universities, but by the towns, the cantons or the Confederation (the National Swiss Museum at Zürich, Director : M. Lehmann, Professor at the University of Zürich ; the Federal Records Office at Berne, Director : M. Türlér, Professor of the Auxiliary Historical Sciences at the University of Berne ; the National Swiss Library at Berne, Director : M. Marcel Godet). The libraries are, however, in close touch with the Universities and several of them

are both "Cantonal" and "University" ; certain Universities grant them regular subsidies for the purchase of books ¹. These matters, which vary as between one canton and another, are determined by laws or special regulations.

4. The courses are given in *French* at Geneva, Lausanne and Neuchâtel ; in *German* at Bâle, Berne and Zürich ; and in *Latin, French and German* at Fribourg. But in all the Universities there are some courses which are given in languages other than the chief official language. For example, the course on French literature and several courses on law are given in French at Berne (because the Canton of Berne contains a French-speaking district, the Jura) ; similarly, a course of Romance Philology is given at Zürich, a course of German Literature in German at Geneva, and courses of English Literature in English at Lausanne, Zürich and Fribourg. The last-named University is, on account of its international character, the one in which the predominance of a particular language is least marked.

The *foreign civilisations* (literature, history, institutions, etc.) which are studied may be said to include all those of Europe, from the most remote prehistoric and early historical times, and those of the Classical East. They are studied with reference to their literature, literary history, linguistics, archæology, political history and institutions. Naturally, the history of America, particularly of the United States, receives the attention which it deserves in courses on general history and on the history of institutions.

Vacation courses are also given in various languages. They were interrupted during the war, but were resumed in 1921. The courses are of different lengths and they deal with various subjects ; the fees are low. Thus, in 1922 and 1923, the Universities of Lausanne, Neuchâtel and Geneva organised courses on French language and literature ; in 1922, courses were given at Bâle University on German language and literature ; and in 1923, courses were held at Fribourg on French, German, English and Italian literature, theology and philosophy. *Contemporary questions* are not neglected. A series of lectures was given in 1922 at the University of Geneva on the League of Nations, the International Labour Office and the Red Cross by members of the secretariats of those organisations ; in 1923, on the present political, economic and social condition of Europe, the East, South America and the United States of America, and on international intellectual co-operation. This series extended over seven weeks. Vacation courses are mainly intended for foreigners and for primary and secondary school teachers. At Fribourg, the Government assists teachers to attend by paying a portion of the fees. All information as to these courses is given directly by the Registries of the Universities.

5. There is also an *Office central universitaire suisse* (*Schweiz. Zentralstelle für Hochschulwesen*), which was founded in 1920 and inaugurated in 1921. It is the joint office of the *Association nationale des universitaires suisses*, the Swiss Universities and the Federal Polytechnic School ². Its special function is to supply information as to conditions of study in Swiss and foreign Universities and to serve as a link between the various High Schools, the Faculties and the Governments of Switzerland and between these organisations and foreigners. It gave information of various kinds in more than two hundred and fifty cases in 1922. It collects University laws, regulations and publications of all kinds concerning Swiss and foreign High Schools. The "Office" has made a provisional arrangement with the "Fédération suisse des Etudiants", the most important Swiss student group, according to which the latter is to supply it with information as to the conditions of life of the students and their organisations, sports, etc.

¹ See *Bibliothekswesen und Hochschulen*, by M. Heusler, Librarian of the Bâle University Library (*Annales universitaires suisses*, 1920-21).

² As regards this question, see the *Bulletin universitaire* (published by the "Office" already mentioned *passim*), the articles of M. Gmür, Professor at the University of Berne—*Die Schweizerische Zentralstelle für Hochschulwesen*—and of M. de Waldkirch, Secretary of the "Office"—(*Bericht...* etc.)—in the *Annales universitaires suisses* for 1920-21 and 1921-22. Complete collections of the *Bulletin* and of the *Annales* are deposited with the other documents used in the enquiry among the records of the League of Nations. The address of the "Office" is 30, Spitalgasse, Berne.

In spite of its modest beginnings, the "Office" bears a certain resemblance to the National Office of French Universities and Schools, the University Bureau in London and the Institute of International Education in New York. M. Gmür, Professor of the Faculty of Law at the University of Berne, has shown clearly in the article referred to above the needs which the establishment of this "Office" was destined to meet and the great rôle which it may be called upon to play in our University life. The eminent Berne jurist rightly observes that the establishment of the "Office" was necessary on account of the number of our High Schools and the diversity of their organisation. While no one proposes any longer to create a Federal University — as in 1798 and 1848 — or to centralise intellectual life, many persons feel that there is a gap which the "Office" is endeavouring to fill and consider that we are in a position of inferiority as compared with foreign countries by reason of the great diversity of our organisation and our ignorance of University life beyond our frontiers. That each Swiss University should continue to feel an attachment for the soil on which it was founded is perfectly right and proper. But our fund of ideas and sentiments ought to be enriched and we ought to learn to understand our neighbours better by instituting exchanges of students between Swiss Universities and by providing for an "equivalence" of studies and degrees between Swiss and foreign Universities. This will be a work of international intellectual co-operation.

Reference may also be made to the *Conference of Rectors of Swiss Universities* founded in 1903. Its object is to facilitate an exchange of views on questions which concern all our High Schools, including the Federal Polytechnicum. The decisions of the Conference are only taken *ad referendum* and do not bind the Institutes which have sent delegates (Article 3 of the standing orders of the Conference)¹. The Conference has dealt up to now with questions of matriculation, the legal protection of Swiss University degrees, the establishment of an entrance examination, the foundation of the "*Office central universitaire*", the obligation to print theses and the special position of the students of the Canton of Ticino on account of their special relations with Italy and their language. Everyone agrees that, within the limits which the Conference has laid down for itself, it is rendering very great service.

It will be seen that, while maintaining their independence and their distinctive characteristics, the Universities of Switzerland have realised the need for co-operation. The establishment of the organisations which have been enumerated, in particular the *Office central universitaire*, has brought out very clearly the diversity of organisation of our High Schools. This diversity can even be seen in their *financial system*, and a professor in the Faculty of Law of the University of Fribourg, M. Aeby, has recently written a special article on the financial autonomy of our High Schools². In this article, he makes the very interesting observation that "in most budgets the expenditure of the *Institutes* which are affiliated for practical purposes to the University (clinics, libraries, dental and veterinary institutes, etc.) is entered separately", and that University endowments are also dealt with independently. The Fribourg professor further observes that the University of *Fribourg* enjoys a larger measure of financial autonomy than other similar Swiss Institutes, because, by reason of its origin, it is not dependent entirely upon the general revenue of the State.

Account must therefore be taken of M. Aeby's remark in order to appreciate the financial efforts of our cantons on behalf of higher education; it would be necessary to make a thorough investigation of their financial position and of the various science endowments in order to arrive at the *total* amount devoted to advanced study. This total is, therefore, much higher than the figures given in the attached table — approximately four millions in 1913 and ten millions in 1922 — in spite of the heading of the first column. Only a portion of these amounts is represented by the *salaries* of the 914 professors and the 73 lecturers and tutors attached to the

¹ See *Die Schweizerische Rektorenkonferenz*, by Professor Thormann, of the Faculty of Law at the University of Berne, in the *Annales universitaires suisses*, 1921-22.

² *L'Autonomie financière des universités suisses*, by Professor Aeby, in the *Annales universitaires suisses*, 1921-22.

Universities who gave instruction during the summer semester of 1923¹. Finally, we must not forget the financial efforts of the auxiliary University associations — the *Sociétés académiques* at Geneva, Lausanne and Fribourg and the *Hochschulvereine* of Bâle, Zürich and Berne — although the principal object of these groups is that of examining University questions and establishing permanent contact between the High Schools and the general public.

6. Great diversity is also apparent in the *students' associations*, although certain definite general currents and some attempts at federation may be observed².

The great majority of the Swiss students' associations do not group the students according to the nature of their studies, but are associations of a political or religious character. Consequently, they have adherents in several Universities who are grouped in "Sections" which bear the name of the association or special names taken from the various towns. A list of the associations is given in one of the annexed documents and we will only refer here to the four most important ones. The *Société de Belles-Lettres* (founded in 1806) is not of a political character, but has taken for its object "the development of the spirit of French-speaking Switzerland" and the study of literary questions. The *Zofingue* Association (founded in 1819) aimed at the "development of the patriotic spirit", without distinction of parties; it soon grouped together the moderate Liberal element, and it was abandoned in 1832 by the founders of the *Société suisse des Helvétiens*, which has Radical political tendencies. The political struggles of the first half of the nineteenth century gave rise in 1841 to the *Société des Etudiants suisses*, which combined the Christian and Conservative elements; it has been exclusively Catholic since 1873. These illustrate the principal tendencies. Mention might also be made of other associations recruited from students of the Protestant, Catholic or Jewish persuasion, sporting associations and "Corps", after the German model. The four above-mentioned associations and some others also wear "couleurs" — to use the time-honoured German expression — that is to say, a cap and a band over the shoulder. Some of them have retained the custom of the "Comment" and of duelling. Foreign students form national associations, as they may desire, possessing the characteristics of their country of origin.

The existence of Swiss particularism, of which more than one example has already been noted, explains why the first *Swiss Students' Federation* was only established in 1920. One of its founders, M. Châtelain, a student in the Faculty of Law at Berne, points out, in the article already referred to, that the re-establishment of peace, the "wave of idealism which swept over tottering Europe" and the League of Nations were the principal causes of this movement towards federation. The International Congress of Students at Strasburg in 1919 called the attention of the Swiss to the absence of any national organisation in their country, and a group of students accordingly set to work in the matter in December 1919. The objects of the young "Fédération" constitute in themselves a whole programme, the achievement of which will be slow and will require much tact and patience. They are to protect the material and moral interests of Swiss students, to create solidarity between the various associations of our country and to represent Swiss University students in international congresses and abroad. The "Fédération suisse des étudiants" is affiliated with the "Confédération internationale des étudiants", which was founded in 1919 on the initiative of French students and which now embraces the national students' unions of seventeen States and publishes a journal entitled *Le Monde universitaire*. The "Fédération suisse des étudiants" carried out an educational tour in France from March 16th to 27th, 1923, of which all those who took part have retained a profound and grateful recollection; the idea of educational tours is making progress³.

¹ Statistics with regard to professors and students will be found in the *Almanach universitaire suisse* (*Schweizerischer Hochschulkalender*), which is published every semester by Messrs. Leeman and Co., Ltd., of Zürich.

² See the *Bulletin universitaire*, Nos. 1-5 (*passim*) and the *Annales universitaires suisses* (1920-21); E. Lohner, *Die Schweizerische Studentenschaft u. ihre Bestrebungen für eine künftige Regeneration der Hochschule*; A. Deluz, *L'Œuvre universitaire suisse des étudiants prisonniers de guerre* (1921-22); G. Châtelain, *La Fédération suisse des étudiants*; Duthaler, *Studentische Fürsorgeeinrichtungen*; Staempfli, *Das akademische Sportwesen in der Schweiz*.

³ See the *Bulletin universitaire*, No. 4.

There is also another international organisation : the International Secretariat of Catholic Students, called the *Pax Romana*, the idea of which was mooted in 1888, but not carried out until 1921. The meeting at which the organisation was founded was held at Fribourg and brought together the representatives of twenty-five countries ; the headquarters are at Fribourg¹. The exchange of students between the various countries and assistance to students in countries ruined by the war are the principal objects which it pursues.

Student *relief work* mainly takes the form of assistance from the *sick insurance funds*, which are to be found in all the Universities and to which each student pays a small contribution every semester, and in the right of admittance to the *University sanatorium*, which was opened at Leysin in October 1922 (and with which the University of Fribourg alone is not connected). The material situation of the students has become worse since the war — to an extent of which the general public is hardly aware — and organisations for mutual assistance and charity have a wide field of action open to them. But man does not live by bread alone...

That was clearly proved by the war, and it was to provide material and spiritual help that the *Œuvre universilaire suisse des prisonniers de guerre*² was founded during this period of stress, thanks to the initiative of M. Louis Maillard, Professor of Astronomy at the University of Lausanne. As the author of the present report is Swiss, he cannot enlarge upon this work of his compatriots. He may, however, be permitted to mention that the organisation carried on its activities in 472 prisoners' camps, that its influence extended to 18,180 prisoners of war and that it made itself directly responsible for the care of 9,000 persons interned in Switzerland. Between 1,200 and 2,200 of the interned were admitted into our High Schools from the winter semester of 1916-17 until the summer semester of 1918, and they were even enabled to prepare for examinations in their own country, thanks to the institution of special courses. The organisation was able to arrange that psychasthenia should be included among the diseases giving the right to immediate internment in Switzerland, and it succeeded in getting a Franco-German agreement signed with regard to the intellectual assistance of prisoners of war.

7. This international activity of the members of the Swiss Universities brings us, in conclusion, to the question of *Intellectual Co-operation* — which is only in its infancy. It is the task of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to select the most effective means for developing international relations of an intellectual kind. The Swiss Universities have, so far, had to restrict themselves to endeavouring to obtain the conclusion of *partial agreements* with certain foreign High Schools.

A *Franco-Swiss* Inter-University Conference was held at Geneva from September 30th to October 4th, 1919, under the presidency of M. Raoul Gautier, Rector of the University of Geneva³. The following countries were invited to take part in the Conference and sent delegates : Belgium, the United States, Great Britain, Italy, Poland, Roumania and Czechoslovakia. The Conference adopted unanimously, and decided to submit for the approval of members of the higher teaching staff and for the sanction of the competent authorities of the two countries, *recommendations* with regard to the following questions : the division of the academic year ; the establishment of a uniform course of study ; whether examinations (especially the "licence" examination) should be taken all at one time or in parts ; the "equivalence" of studies, examinations and diplomas ; the exchange of professors ; the establishment of international University information bureaux ; the relations between libraries, and the relations between the Universities and elementary education. The exchange of views was of very great interest, but nothing has so far been done beyond the adoption of recommendations.

An *Anglo-Swiss* Inter-University Conference was held at Bâle from August 21st to 23rd, 1922. The Conference discussed a certain number of questions similar to those mentioned above,

¹ See the *Bulletin universitaire*, No. 5.

² See article already referred to by M. A. Deluz in *Annales universitaires*, 1920-21.

³ See the *Documents, verbatim reports of meetings and reports* of the Franco-Swiss Inter-University Conference, Geneva, September 30th to October 4th, 1919. Publisher : J. Studer, Geneva, 1920, 121 pages.

but its decisions were also not of an obligatory character. The results which concern the Swiss, and which were communicated to them during the year 1923, are as follows :

(a) The Universities of Cambridge, Birmingham, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester and Sheffield recognise the University of Bâle as an *affiliated University*. The students of the University of Bâle are therefore admitted to these English Universities without having to pass an entrance examination.

(b) The University of *Oxford* exempts from the entrance examination all Swiss students who have passed the appropriate examination, with Latin as a subject, and have obtained the certificate of maturity (*baccalauréat*). If a Swiss student desires to pass an examination at Oxford, the University of Oxford will allow him to reckon his period of study in Switzerland up to a maximum of two years.

II.

If we try to discover certain *general characteristics* of University life in Switzerland and the *main problem* with which public and University authorities are faced, the results might be summed up as follows :

1. That the fall in the value of money and the precarious economic situation of the Continent of Europe are the principal causes of the evils from which our higher education is suffering. The expenditure of the Canton-States, upon which the Universities depend, has increased in a much larger proportion than their revenue. The views held by our best economists and our most eminent administrators would seem to prove that we have arrived at the *extreme limit* of the financial charges which can be imposed upon the taxpayers. Consequently, it is increasingly difficult for the cantons — as is shown by their budgets and the debates of the legislative authorities — to obtain new resources or even the sums necessary for the various administrative services. Attempts are therefore made to economise, and generally to economise on such items of the budget as do not appear to present any immediate material utility. Higher education suffers to a certain extent from this conception of economy. The scale of salaries which will be found in one of the annexed tables shows the differences between the various cantons. It is no exaggeration to say that these salaries do not by any means everywhere suffice to relieve professors — and this is especially the case at Fribourg — from ordinary material anxieties. The table (No. 1) of salaries and expenditure drawn up in accordance with the figures supplied by the cantonal departments of Public Instruction or by the Universities shows that the financial position of the Universities in *German Switzerland* is on the whole better than that of the Universities of *French-speaking Switzerland* : the general expenses are not proportional to the number of students¹.

2. That the complications of the international situation also have their effect upon our Universities and particularly upon the number of students in the Faculties. The number of students has greatly diminished in most of our High Schools, as is shown by the attached annex. Many foreign students no longer have the resources to allow them to study in Switzerland, especially as the Swiss exchange is against them. The relative impoverishment of the intellectual classes is also noticeable in Switzerland. Persons who formerly would have been able

¹ Financial difficulties due to the economic crisis have given rise to a scheme to amalgamate the three French-speaking Universities into one and to distribute the various Faculties among the three capitals, Geneva, Lausanne and Neuchâtel. There does not, however, seem to be much chance of this scheme being carried out (see "La question de l'Université romande" (E. Bauty), *Gazette de Lausanne*, May 21st, 1923).

to send their children to the University now have to put them into occupations where they can earn money immediately. It is possible that, to a certain extent, every evil has its good side, and that the overcrowding of the liberal professions may be diminished. But as it is everywhere stated that all careers are overcrowded, it may well be asked if the diminution in the number of students is really an advantage. Moreover, a certain number of Swiss students — a number which appears to be diminishing, according to what we hear from various quarters — are taking advantage of the state of the exchanges in order to go and study in foreign Universities, particularly in Germany. Finally, it is possible that the *nationalist* feeling which is observable in various countries is a factor in deciding a certain number of foreigners to study in their own country. The falling off in the number of students in our Universities naturally has an effect on the receipts of the Universities and on the situation of the professors, whose share of the lecture-fees (*Kollegiengelder*) is reduced (see Table No. 2).

3. It may be concluded from what has been said that the majority of Swiss Universities cannot make any extensive plans for the future and must restrict themselves to maintaining their positions. No important changes appear to have been made since 1914. We may, however, mention the establishment at *Berne* in 1921 of an Institute of Dental Medicine.

4. Finally, certain theoretical and professional problems are engaging the attention of the Swiss authorities and Universities. We can only refer here to the most important of them — the question of the standard of general education which should be required of students entering the university, the question of specialisation — students are apt to begin to specialise too early — and the question of *Latin*, which is closely connected with the former and is so often debated in all countries. The last question was discussed by the National Association of Swiss University Professors at its general meeting on December 11th, 1921, at Neuchâtel. It is now subjected to the scrutiny of the public, since the Federal Council has had it investigated by a committee of experts entrusted with the revision of the regulations for the examination called the “*maturité fédérale*”. This examination, which does not interfere with the cantonal *baccalauréal* examinations — for the cantons are rightly jealous of their sovereign rights in questions of public education — is intended for students who, for good reasons, have not been able to follow a regular course of secondary education or who are self-taught.

The work of the Universities and the tasks imposed upon them have been discussed for the last three years in the recently established and admirable review entitled *Annales universitaires suisses* (see number for 1921-22), published by M. E. de Waldkirch, the Director of the *Office central universitaire suisse* at Berne. This distinguished Berne professor has himself written an article replete with facts and ideas, entitled *Das schweizerische Hochschul-Jahrbuch in seinen Grundlagen und Zielen*. It contains an entire programme of activities affecting alike the professors and students of our Universities and Swiss public life as a whole. He rightly opens with the clear and suggestive statement: “We need an active interchange of ideas”, and justly attributes the responsibility for the absence of such an exchange to “the splitting up of modern intellectual life” (“*die Zersplitterung des modernen Geisteslebens*”). We would like to follow him page by page and even to quote the twenty articles on various subjects which appeared in the two numbers for 1920-21 and 1921-22. The space at our disposal makes it impossible to do so. But we must at least give a summary of two articles which appear in the 1920-21 number, and which have the merit of raising once more, and endeavouring to resolve, two questions of primary importance — the role of the Universities in Swiss public life and the presence of numerous foreigners in the professoriate. The first of these treatises — “The Universities and Public Life in Switzerland” — was written by M. W. E. Rappard, Professor at the University of Geneva and one of the first League of Nations workers; the second — “Foreigners and Swiss Universities” — is from the pen of M. Sauser-Hall, Professor at the University of Neuchâtel and Permanent Secretary in the Federal Political Department.

In the light of the experience of the last few years, M. Rappard indicates in outline the

work which Swiss University professors will be called upon to perform in public life. He expresses a hope : (1) that in the future an ever-increasing number of our Chairs will be occupied by professors of Swiss nationality¹ ; (2) that endowments by private persons will contribute towards raising our High Schools out of the poverty which now paralyses them and will enable them to pay the professors on a reasonable scale. The latter will then no longer be compelled to supplement, by additional work, the inadequate resources which the State accords to them ; (3) that exchanges of professors between the Universities of German Switzerland and those of French-speaking Switzerland will make the members of the higher teaching staff "sagacious and conscious" interpreters of the rival races which inhabit Switzerland ; and (4) that University men will help to guide and moderate opinion in class conflicts. They are in touch with the people — frequently by their origin, more often by the smallness of their earnings — and they may bestow on the people, in return for their hard work, spiritual gifts which conduce to their mental and moral welfare².

These conclusions may be compared with those arrived at by M. Sauser-Hall. As science is and must be international, there should be no hesitation, if the interests of pure scientific research are alone considered, in opening Swiss Universities freely to distinguished foreign scholars. He adds : "We may be all the more disposed to do so when we consider that the history of the foreigners who have devoted all their powers to the development of Swiss Universities is a glorious one." But, he adds with reason, our Universities are not "merely institutes for pure scientific research" : we must consider "the intellectual, and not only the strictly professional, education of the students". The force of the general ideas which are put into circulation by University men "should not be disregarded, especially as the nation is threatened in its very foundations by the excessive influx of foreigners", who number more than half a million out of a population of less than four million. Must we then "regard the relations between Swiss Universities and foreigners as a matter directly dependent upon the general policy of the country ?" The number of Chairs in Switzerland held by foreigners — calculated in 1915 by M. Rappard in the article already mentioned — is striking. Fribourg 73 % ; Bâle 33 % ; Zürich 25 % ; the Federal Polytechnic School 21 % ; Berne 22 % ; Lausanne 17 % ; Neuchâtel 14 % and Geneva 13 %. Is it excessive ? "It is difficult to affirm it", says the Neuchâtel professor, "even in the case of Fribourg University, where the observance of the Catholic dogma invests the University instruction with a philosophical unity which the varied nationalities of the professors cannot disturb". M. Sauser-Hall proposes : (1) to confine to Swiss citizens the Chairs of educational science and law, in order that the young jurist may appreciate in all its fullness and force the federative idea which is so intertwined with our history ; (2) to make the appointment of a foreigner to a University Chair in Switzerland dependent upon the very important condition of reciprocity — a matter which is mainly of importance in our relations with France and Germany. Finally, he discusses the questions of the *international exchange of students* and the "equivalence" of studies, which formed the subject of the Franco-Swiss Inter-University Conference at Geneva in 1919 and the Anglo-Swiss Conference in Bâle in 1922. He emphasises the importance of closer contact with the *Anglo-Saxon* world, which exhibits so lively an interest in our intellectual life and our political institutions. He concludes : "The direction which

¹ M. Rappard discussed this delicate question in 1915 in an article entitled "The Nationality of University Professors in Switzerland" (*Wissen und Leben*, June 1st, 1915).

² The following pamphlet by M. E. de Waldkirch, who has already been mentioned, and who recommends far-reaching reforms in the relations between the Universities and the State, will also be read with interest : *Staat und Hochschule* (published by E. Bircher, Berne and Leipzig, 1920). We may add also that of M. Pierre Bovet, professor at Geneva University, "La réforme scolaire à l'Université" (Neuchâtel, Forum ed., 1921). His leading ideas are the same as those which inspire, in France, the "Companions" who advocate the "new University", in Germany, "Die neue Erziehung". In Switzerland, the books of Professor Ragaz and at Geneva the programme of the Society "La Justice sociale dans l'éducation". These ideas are : the *social point of view* should have a greater role in education, the appeal to the scholar's personal activity seems the most useful factor in his complete development. There are excellent suggestions in this pamphlet, which has unfortunately come under my notice too late to allow of my doing more than draw attention to it.

might thus be given to our University life in our relations with foreigners, both professors and students, would be of a nature to ensure the legitimate predominance of our own nationals without compromising in any way that scientific internationalism which is absolutely essential for the progress of knowledge. Precautions, yes ; but not exclusion."

The world-war subjected the professoriate of our Universities to a hard test, from which it emerged with honour. It made Swiss professors feel more imperatively the necessity for intellectual independence in their relations with the great racial groups which surround us. This need of the Swiss to assert their nationality — without the least hatred or chauvinism — in order to escape from foreign domination resulted in 1915 in the formation of the *Association nationale des universitaires suisses*. This body now consists of about 500 members and has undertaken the task of investigating all problems of interest alike to our higher education and our public life.

Thus all the vital questions have been laid before public opinion. I cannot refrain in this connection from referring to the courageous book of the Rev. *M. L. Ragaz*, who was until quite recently Professor in the Faculty of Theology at the University of Zürich. In this book, which is entitled *Die Neue Schweiz* (The New Switzerland), he examined the national conscience in a way which provoked keen discussion. He emphasised the excessively utilitarian character of all classes of schools and recalled a principle which ought to inspire any educational law or programme : "Make *men* before making *specialists*." The same idea manifests itself in his book, published in 1921, "*Die pädagogische Revolution*", in which he demonstrates the unity of the educational problem. In both the works of this great citizen of Zürich, on whom the University of Geneva has conferred the title of Doctor *honoris causa*, are revealed that vigorous thinking and that independence which are the safeguard of free States.

We see here a reaction against the "dispersed character of intellectual life" referred to above. Specialisation must come after the "humanities" ; it is only on that condition that it will be fruitful. The vigorous and independent author of *The New Switzerland* is not alone in his opinions. There are, and there have long been, many educationists teaching in higher schools who deplore the fact that their pupils do not possess a deeper and wider culture. That alone could imbue them with true intellectual curiosity and with that philosophic spirit which strengthens the analytic powers, opens the way to synthesis and also develops the amiable quality of modesty.

If we were to venture to state a conclusion — which can only be provisional, because we are ignorant of many aspects of our subject and we are without the requisite experience to write such a paper as the present — we would express it in these terms : Switzerland, which was sorely tried, spiritually and materially, by the world war, is still suffering more than she admits, and more than is generally thought, from the post-war crisis. She is none the less resolved to pursue, with her feeble resources, but with all her strength, and in harmony with the federal institutions which she has freely adopted and evolved in the course of the six centuries of her existence, her ideal of international peace and collaboration in the interests of science, patriotism and humanity. And that is undoubtedly what the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and the League of Nations expect of her.

TABLE No. 1.

Expenditure of the Cantons of

	<i>Bâle</i>		<i>Berne</i>		<i>Fribourg</i>	
	1913	1922	1913	1922	1913	1922
I. Total expenditure of the State on the University and the institutions connected therewith	555,871	2,155,556	1,026,023	1,983,470	361,427	569,000
II. Salary of the <i>ordinary</i> professors :						
(1) Fixed salary :						
(a) Minimum.....	5,000	9,000	5,500	8,500	4,000	7,000
(b) Maximum	8,000	12,500	7,000	10,500	6,000	9,000
(2) Number of years of service after which maximum salary is reached... ..	14 years	14 years	12 years	12 years	—	16 years
(3) Proportion of class fees received by <i>ordinary</i> professors.						
(a) The proportion is	93 %	93 %	73 %	93 % 53 %	—	100 %
(b) and represents the sum of :						
(i) Maximum ..	11,798	14,533	Approximately 4,000 frs. per semester.		—	
(ii) Minimum ..	—	—	?	?		300 frs. ann.
III. Salary of <i>extraordinary</i> professors :						
(1) Fixed salary :						
(a) Minimum.....	There is no legal fixed salary ; it is fixed in each case according to the importance of the course of lectures.		5,000	7,500	Same figures as for ordinary professors.	
(b) Maximum						

No. 1

Universities and Professors' Salaries.

Geneva		Lausanne		Neuchâtel		Zürich	
1913	1922	1913	1922	1913	1922	1913	1922
786,245	1,533,781	336,358	1,027,481	172,289	364,911	1,068,234	2,375,440 ¹
ed in ach case	From 3,000 to 4,800 for 1 hour. From 10,000 to 13,000 for 6 hrs.	Fixed in each case in 1916 6,000	A maximum of 1,500 francs in 1923 per hour-year	400 fr. per hour - year 300 fr. per hour-year	800 to 900 francs. 900 to 1,000 francs	4,800 9,000	12,000 16,000
—	12 years	Increase of 5 % every two years		20 years	11 years	Variable	13 years
0 %	50 %	—	47 % in 1923	50 %	50 %	100 %	30 %
?	?	?	?	?	1,360	20,000	11,200
?	?	?	?	?	9,20	400	200
d in ch case	As in the case of ordinary professors	Fixed in each case in 1916	4,000 to 5,000 in 1923 11,000	Same basis as for ordi- nary professors		2,000 5,000	8,000 12,000
2,000							

¹ The sum of 2,036,540 frs. must be added in respect of new buildings.

Table No.
Expenditure of the Cantons on

	<i>Bâle</i>		<i>Berne</i>		<i>Fribourg</i>	
	1913	1922	1913	1922	1913	1922
III. Salary of <i>extraordinary</i> professors (<i>continued</i>) :						
(2) Number of years of service after which the maximum salary is reached						
(3) Proportion of class fees received by the <i>extraordinary</i> professors.						
(a) The proportion is	96 %	96 %	73 %	93 % to 53 %		
(b) and represents the sum of :						
(i) Maximum..	4,971	4,462	?	—	—	—
(ii) Minimum ..	—	—	?	—	—	—
<i>General Observations.</i>	<i>Note</i>		<i>Note</i>		<i>Note</i>	
(1) All the figures in this table are given in Swiss francs.	The maximum salary of <i>ordinary</i> professors may be increased by the Government, so that the legal maximum is often reached before the expiry of the 14 years above mentioned.		The maximum salary of <i>ordinary</i> professors may be increased by the Government.		1. The maximum salary may be increased by the Government. Salaries have, however just been <i>decreased</i> by 5 % as from July 1st 1923.	
(2) University professors are always eligible for <i>pensions</i> , subject to conditions which vary in the different cantons and according to scales fixed by special laws. These funds are constituted by contributions paid in by the professors and payments made by the State.					2. The class fees are fixed at 60 francs for the winter semester and 50 francs for the summer semester. This scale was established in 1917	

(continued).

Universities and Professors' Salaries.

Geneva		Lausanne		Neuchâtel		Zürich	
1913	1922	1913	1922	1913	1922	1913	1922
						Variable.	13 years
%	50 %	—	47 % in 1923	—	—	100 %	30 %
?	?	?	?	?	1,416	9,000	2,000
?	?	?	?	?	13.80	200	100
<p><i>Note</i></p> <p>Salaries may be increased by the Government.</p>							

Table No. 2.

Statistics of Professors and Students.

<i>University</i>	<i>When founded</i>	<i>Summer Semester</i>	<i>Professors</i>	<i>Matri- culated Students</i>	<i>Students (not matri- culated)</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Foreigners</i>
Bâle	1460	1908	120	621	97	20	139
		1913	112	869	168	50	195
		1918	120	961	261	79	145
		1922	135	894	109	76	134
Berne	1834 [1528]	1908	138	1,658	319	471	825
		1913	167	1,606	250	190	532
		1918	173	1,830	350	185	370
		1922	171	1,567	279	149	201
Fribourg	1889	1908	72	563	61	—	378
		1913	82	574	39	30	373
		1918	63	551	46	27	262
		1922	64	508	36	32	218
Geneva	1873 [1559]	1908	150	1,365	204	483	1,142
		1913	160	1,355	314	424	1,078
		1918	154	1,095	438	182	606
		1922	176	738	178	135	221
Lausanne	1890 [1537]	1908	113	1,038	160	307	766
		1913	114	928	1	174	692
		1918	123	1,081	138	103	581
		1922	119	676	94	89	199
Neuchâtel	1909 [1866]	1908	—	—	—	—	—
		1913	64	255	62	107	105
		1918	67	226	163	49	68
		1922	54	151	35	32	11
Zürich	1833	1908	150	1,471	286	397	760
		1913	154	1,501	374	217	604
		1918	165	1,875	278	285	484
		1922	169	1,346	403	213	174

The *dates* given in brackets are those of the foundation of a "High School" or of an "Academy", precedent to the establishment of the *University* properly so-called.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO THE
CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series

INTELLECTUAL LIFE

in the

VARIOUS COUNTRIES

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

THE UNIVERSITIES

By

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NOTE

The object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing this series of pamphlets is to call attention to the problems of organisation and intellectual assistance to which each subject gives rise. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but desires rather to bring them to the notice of the public and to provide an opportunity for further suggestions.

THE UNIVERSITIES

I. — GENERAL SITUATION

When in 1918 Czechoslovakia was established as an independent State she possessed two universities on that part of her territory which had previously belonged to Austria. These universities—the one Czech, the other German—were both situated at Prague; she also possessed a Faculty of Catholic Theology at Olomouc (Olmütz) in Moravia.

The University of Prague was founded in 1348 by King Charles, on the pattern of the University of Paris; it was reorganised in 1409, and its distinctively Czech character was maintained until after the Thirty Years' War, when it fell under German influence, and was incorporated in 1653, by Ferdinand III, with the College of Jesuits (*Universitas Carolo-Ferdinandea*). In 1882, it was divided into two separate Czech and German universities, each of which had four Faculties: Divinity, Law, Medicine, Philosophy. This division was due to the efforts of a number of Czech professors, who succeeded during the nineteenth century in emphasising the dual nationality of the University in spite of the preponderance of the German element, which had become more marked since the time of Maria Theresa.

The Theological Faculty at Olomouc was all that remained of the university which had existed in that town from 1574 until 1855 (the Theological Faculty dates from 1582). In Slovakia, which until 1918 belonged to Hungary, a Hungarian university—the Elizabeth University—had been established in 1912, and inaugurated in 1914, at Pressburg, the present Bratislava, which was then called Pozsony; there was also an Academy (Faculty) of Law at Kosice (then Kassa) dating from 1657. In 1919, after the establishment of the Czechoslovak Republic, the organisation of the universities was considerably modified and extended. At Prague, the Czech university resumed its old name, "*Universitas Carolina*", and a Czechoslovak Faculty of Protestant Theology, called the "John Huss" Faculty, was founded in that city. At the same time an entirely new university, which received the name of Masaryk, was established at Brno (Brünn), the capital of Moravia; its Faculties of Law and Medicine were inaugurated in 1919, but the Faculties of Philosophy (Letters) and Natural Sciences were only instituted at the beginning of the academic year, 1921-22; no theological faculty will be established, as the existing faculty at Olomouc will continue its work under the name of Cyrillo-Methodist Faculty. The Hungarian university at Bratislava has been abolished and replaced by a new Czechoslovak university called after Komensky (Comenius); the Hungarian Faculties of Medicine and Philosophy, which were only instituted in 1918, were dissolved in 1919; the Faculty of Law continued to exist until 1921, when the Elizabeth University, which had temporarily been transferred to Budapest, was finally moved to Pécs; the Komensky University at first inaugurated only its Faculty of Medicine, but the Faculties of Law and Philosophy (Letters) were subsequently instituted, in 1921. In this case again, no theological faculty has been established in connection with the university itself, but, in 1919, a Faculty of Catholic Theology and a Slovak Academy (Faculty) of Protestant Theology were founded at Bratislava. At the Kosice Academy of Law, the lectures are still given in Hungarian.

All these universities and faculties are State institutions but they are nevertheless autonomous; the law of February 13th, 1919, revising the relations between university professors and the Government, gave them still greater independence. The internal administration of

the universities and the organisation of the teaching, with an academic year of two terms, have remained much as they were under Austro-Hungarian rule and the only reform of importance has been the making of Philosophy into a separate faculty at all the universities. This was done in 1919-20. The present Faculties of Philosophy are exclusively Faculties of Letters, as there is now a separate Faculty for Natural Sciences. The result of this reform has been to bring the Czechoslovak universities more into line with the universities in Western countries. In spite of the more important role now allotted to Natural Science, Latin has been retained as a compulsory subject in the entrance examination. Pupils from the secondary schools who have not studied that language must, unless they intend to specialise in natural sciences, take a subsidiary examination in Latin, and, if need be, in propædæutic philosophy, before being admitted to the University as regular students. For admission to the theological faculty and certain branches of the Faculty of Philosophy (Letters), a knowledge of Greek (and in some cases, a subsidiary examination in that subject) is also compulsory.

The present economic crisis necessarily reacts upon the financial situation of the universities, but the position, speaking generally, is not intolerable, thanks to the increased subventions which they are accorded by the State. For instance, the budget of the Czech university at Prague, which, before the War, amounted to about two million crowns (1,977,370 in 1913; 2,055,361 in 1914-15), and which even in 1919 was very little higher (2,702,607), amounted to 5,059,581 crowns in 1920, to 7,239,454 crowns in 1921, and to 15,211,202 crowns in 1922. This sum is by no means negligible, in spite of the fact that the Czechoslovak crown has at present only a sixth of its pre-War value; the total corresponds to nearly a million Swiss francs. The budget figures of the German university at Prague and of the new universities at Brno and Bratislava amount to about one-half of those for the Charles University.

The most serious obstacle to the development of all these universities is undoubtedly the lack of accommodation. At Prague, the buildings are scattered in various quarters of the town and, with the exception of a few recently founded institutions, the majority of the laboratories, schools, etc., are greatly hampered by lack of space. Bratislava is in the same predicament, although the Komensky University has been able to make use of a portion of the buildings of the former Hungarian university. The position of the university at Brno is equally unsatisfactory; it is entirely owing to lack of premises that the inauguration of its Faculty of Philosophy has had to be postponed and it is to be feared that the university will have to be content with temporary premises for the next two or three years.

The Government is doing its utmost to remedy the lack of accommodation. A scheme for erecting a new building for the Charles University has been under consideration since 1919, and has already produced positive results. Between 1920 and 1923, a suitable building, intended to house several branches of the Faculty of Philosophy, was erected in the Old Town at Prague; it was, however, found necessary to allot provisional accommodation in this building to certain offices of the Chamber and of the Department of Foreign Commerce. In 1923, the erection of three large university buildings for the Rectorate and the Faculties of Law and Philosophy begun on adjacent sites. The building of temporary premises for the Faculties of Law and Philosophy will shortly be commenced at Bratislava. At Brno, buildings have been adapted at a cost of several millions in order to remedy the lack of accommodation.

The equipment of the university institutions also leaves much to be desired, and the rise in prices prohibits the purchase of books and instruments—especially when they have to be obtained from abroad. A generous donation received in 1921 from the Rockefeller Foundation enabled the Faculties of Medicine at the Charles and German Universities to purchase instruments abroad. In consequence of an increase in the budget for Higher Education in 1921 and 1922, some of the Institutes of Medicine and Natural Science—in particular those at Brno—were able to obtain a very complete equipment. Lastly, it must be pointed out that the high cost of printing prevents the publication of work done by the universities or by individual members.

The financial position of professors, as of all other officials, is very unsatisfactory. The fees of ordinary professors in Prague range from 19,608 to 32,208 crowns, and those of supernumerary

professors from 16,462 to 21,180 crowns. In other words, they vary between 2,600 to 5,200 Swiss francs per annum. Supplementary allowances, which fluctuate according to the cost of living, are, however, granted. The Czechoslovak university professors have formed a Central Society for the defence of their professional interests; the German professors are similarly organised.

The conditions under which students live are, of course, even harder, as a result not only of the high cost of living, but also of the lack of accommodation. All the universities do their utmost to assist them. For example, in one academic year (1920-1921) scholarships amounting to a total of 380,000 crowns were divided between three thousand students at the Charles University. For the year 1921-22, gifts amounting to 44,200 crowns were made to the students at the University of Brno. At the Czech university at Prague, arrangements are made for students to obtain meals at reduced prices in two institutions called the "Mensa Academica" and the "Mensa" in the students' hostel; they are also provided with cheap lodging at the students' colony in Letná and board and lodging at the students' home (Studentský domov) and at the "Masaryk" and "Stephanik" Colleges. Another organisation—called Svépomoc—finds remunerative employment for students and a social Relief Committee controls and co-ordinates the distribution of grants. Two organisations of the same kind deal with housing questions and afford assistance to students belonging to the German university. At Bratislava there is not only a "Mensa" but also a resident hostel for students, who, even in 1920-1921, could live at the rate of 50 crowns a month. In spite of their limited resources the students have formed numerous scientific societies; at Prague, the most important bodies of this kind are those organised by law students, medical students and students belonging to the faculties of Letters and Science. There is also a Central Federation of Czechoslovak students (with local branches and a bureau supplying information concerning studies abroad), and there are Central Associations of Catholic students and Protestant students (Jeronym). The many foreigners, especially Slavs, who study at the Charles University have their special Associations: White Ruthenes, Bulgarians, Jugoslavs, Russians (four associations) and Ukrainians (three associations). Similar associations (for science, the humanities and sports) also exist at the German university at Prague; several of them possess valuable libraries.

The influence of the universities on intellectual life as a whole is shown by the number of popular lectures given in university towns and in the provinces. Committees, on which professors from the university and from the polytechnic high school work together, have been set up for this purpose at Prague and Brno. The number of these lectures, which was necessarily restricted during the War (a minimum of 36 lectures in Prague and 18 in the provinces in 1915-1916), has again reached the pre-War figure (120 lectures and 85 in the provinces in 1913-1914), and in the year 1920-1921 it rose to 160 at Prague and 503 in the provinces.

II. — DEVELOPMENT OF INDIVIDUAL UNIVERSITIES.

The progressive development of Czechoslovakian universities is best illustrated by the example of the *Charles University*, which has generously supplied the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation with a mass of detailed information on the subject. The institutions of this university are very fully developed, the number—including clinics, schools, laboratories, etc.—amounting at present to 87; some of these institutions have only recently been founded: as, for instance, the schools for the study of apologetics and of the ancient Slav liturgy established in connection with the Theological Faculty; the institutes of bacteriology and serology, and two clinics at the Faculty of Medicine; the sociological school, the institute of psychology, the laboratory for Czechoslovak archæology, the school for the history of music, the phonetic laboratory, the new Jugo-Slav and Russian departments at the school for Slav philology, and two schools for Oriental languages; and lastly, the institute of inorganic and analytical chemistry (now separate from the institute of organic chemistry) and the pharmaceutical and botanical laboratories at the Faculty of Natural Science. The university proposes not only to establish new Chairs (*e.g.*, a Chair for art and ecclesiastical archæology in connection with the Faculty of Theology), but also to create additional institutes (*e.g.*, an institute for photographic and physical chemistry to be opened in connection with the Faculty of Science). New medical institutions are also contemplated (*e.g.*, a third clinic for internal diseases, a third surgical clinic, a second clinic for skin diseases and a second gynæcological clinic, as well as institutes for orthopædic treatment and balneotherapy, history of medicine, etc.).

Since 1920, the Faculties of Law and Philosophy have been organising two-year courses for students of higher schools who have obtained diplomas and who desire to prepare for the consular and diplomatic service. These courses, which since 1921 have been styled "Czech Schools for the Consular and Diplomatic Service", are held in the High Schools, with the co-operation of experts. Lectures are given on diplomatic history, international and constitutional law, political economy, financial legislation and commercial geography and technics. Special courses for journalists will shortly be arranged in connection with the Charles University.

The Faculties of Law and Philosophy at the Charles University also work in close collaboration with the School of Archives, which is constituted on the model of the *École de Chartes* at Paris, and is primarily intended for Czechoslovak nationals who have finished their first year's course of historical studies at the Faculty of Letters and wish to prepare for service in the State archives, or for historical research in general; they have to pass an entrance examination (written and oral test in Latin, Czechoslovak history, historical geography and the German or Hungarian language) and not more than ten candidates are admitted every other year. Foreign students may be admitted in addition, at the discretion of the Governing Body. The course, consisting of lectures given by professors from the Charles University and by archivists, is spread over three years; the lectures deal principally with history and kindred subjects, especially the history of Czechoslovakia, and follow a definite syllabus. At the end of the first and second years the students take examinations, upon the results of which their admission to the next year's course depends. Third-year students have to write a thesis and pass an examination for the Archivist's Diploma. The four or five students heading the lists in the first- and second-year examinations are entitled to a scholarship of from 1,000 to 2,000 crowns for the following year.

The statistical tables, prepared in the Rector's offices at the Charles University, for the purpose of showing in detail the increase in the number of professors and students, as well as the number of doctor's degrees taken since 1913, afford very interesting information concerning the development of the university. The numbers of the teaching staff, of whom there were 220

before the War (1913-1914) and 224 immediately after the War (1918-1919), rose in 1921-1922 to 268. It should be noted that this increase is due principally to the extension of the Faculty of Philosophy, which in 1913-1914 and 1918-1919 had a staff of 108 masters; the strength of this staff had increased in 1919-1920 to 135, and in 1920-1921, when the Faculty was divided into two separate branches, it included 88 masters in the new Faculty of Philosophy (Letters) and 55 in the Faculty of Science; these figures rose still further to 102 and 59 in 1921-1922. At present, the Faculty of Philosophy, which deals exclusively with literature, is as large as the combined Faculty of Literature and Science before the War. The number of assistants and lecturers collaborating with the Professors of Literature and Science has been nearly doubled.

At the same time, the increase in the number of students has been proportionately even larger than that in the number of professors. This may to some extent be a consequence of the War, which prevented the younger generation from continuing their studies and had thus caused an accumulation of new entries when peace was concluded. The total number of students at the Charles University, which was 4,740 before the War (1913-1914) and 5,852 immediately after the War (1918-1919), rose in 1921-1922 to 8,814; the number of women students increased from 444 to 1,404. With regard to individual faculties, the only decrease was in the number of theological students, which dropped from 144 (1913-1914) to 44 (1918-1919) and to 41 in 1921-1922; in the Faculty of Law, on the other hand, there was a marked increase from 2,154 to 2,322 and again to 3,584; even larger was the increase in the faculty, of Philosophy (including Natural Sciences), which rose from 1,339 to 1,526 and 2,336; while the most striking increase was from 1,003 to 1,960 and 2,853 in the Faculty of Medicine. It should be added that, after the former Faculty of Philosophy was divided, the Faculty of Letters attracted more students than the Faculty of Science (1,502 and 717 in 1920-1921; 1,439 and 897 in 1921-1922). The change is due to the striking fact that the number of women students in the Faculty of Science increased from 159 to 184, while in the Faculty of Letters it decreased from 645 to 483.

With regard to the doctor's degrees, the number of examinations passed and of degrees obtained has increased most markedly in the Faculties of Law (636 examinations and 175 degrees in 1913-1914; 1,204 and 370 in 1920-1921) and Medicine (456 and 103 in 1913-1914 and 1,193 and 408 in 1921-1922). In Theology there has been no marked change. In Philosophy there has been a noticeable increase, though not so large as in Law and Medicine (86 examinations and 48 degrees in 1913-1914; 121 and 54 in 1921-1922), more than a third of which (46 and 20) belong to the new Faculty of Science.

The John Huss Faculty of Protestant Theology, which has asked to be incorporated with the Charles University, has been developing slowly but steadily since its foundation in 1919. In addition to the three ordinary professors who formed the original staff, there are now two supernumerary professors, three unsalaried lecturers (*privatdozenten*) and three readers. The number of students has increased from 31 to 54. Each of the five departments has its school, and the establishment of a new Chair for the History and Philosophy of Religion is under consideration.

The German University at Prague, which also sent in a detailed reply to the Committee's questionnaire, has not developed to the same extent as the Czech university. The number of its institutes, clinics and schools has been practically stationary since 1913-1914 (64). At that period it was in some respects better equipped than the Czech university, having in 1882 obtained the apparatus belonging to the ancient common university. Since the War, a school for philology has been established and the Faculty of Philosophy (Literature), which has just established Chairs of Comparative Literature (with a school), of German Ethnology and of Czechoslovak History, also proposes to create a Chair of Popular Education, a lectureship on library economy and an institute for the study of the home country (*Heimatsforschung*); the Faculty of Science is contemplating the creation of a Chair of Natural Philosophy and an institute of anthropology. The number of professors and other teachers, which remained practically stationary (about 170) between 1913 and 1921, has recently risen to 186. There has been a large increase in the number of students (from 2,295 in 1913-1914 to 3,539 in 1921-1922); but whereas before the War there were about half as many students as at the Czech university, the present proportion is considerably less (half would be 4,407). As at the Charles University, the largest increase has been

in the Faculty of Medicine, where the number of students and the number of examinations passed have been practically trebled, while there has been a decrease in the numbers at the Faculties of Theology and Law.

As was explained above, the new *University at Brno* was organised as it were in two stages. During the scholastic years 1919-20 and 1920-21 there were only two Faculties, Law and Medicine; in 1921-22, the Faculties of Philosophy and Science were added. Much difficulty was at first experienced in establishing these institutions; however, the Faculty of Medicine, which at the beginning had only seven institutes and clinics, now has 22; while nine schools for the Faculty of Philosophy, and 15 institutes and laboratories for the Faculty of Science have been organised. The Faculty of Law has two schools. The former Moravian library, with its 250,000 volumes, has become the university library and is visited by more than 200,000 readers yearly.

The number of professors has increased rapidly: in 1919-20 there were 9 professors in the Faculty of Law and 9 in the Faculty of Medicine; for 1920-21 the figures rose to 10 and 17 and, at the same time, the first professors for the two other faculties were appointed, bringing the total to 63. At the end of the scholastic year 1921-22, the numbers had already increased to 81, with the addition of 56 assistants. The students, of whom there were only 540 in 1919-20, were divided almost equally between Law and Medicine. Thus, in 1920-21, out of 967 students, 505 were taking law as compared with 453 studying medicine. In 1921-22, there was only a slight increase in the number of law and medical students (556 and 496 respectively), but there were 128 working at the Faculty of Philosophy and 64 at the Faculty of Science, bringing the total to 1,244.

The Faculty of Catholic Theology at Olomouc numbered 12 professors and 91 students during 1921-22.

At Bratislava, the new *Komensky University* used the clinics and medical institutes belonging to the former Hungarian university, as well as its library of 67,700 volumes (now 78,000 volumes and 230 manuscripts). Between 1920 and 1922, additions were made to this library by the systematic purchase of books and even of whole collections. Several new medical institutes and four schools for the Faculty of Philosophy were organised in 1921-22. During the first two years of its existence, there were only 10 medical professors and two readers in the Czech and Slovak languages at the university. In 1921-22, four new masters were appointed to the Faculty of Medicine and the Faculties of Law and Philosophy began work with 7 or 8 professors, thus making a total teaching staff of 31. There were 133 students in 1919-20 and 247 in 1920-21.

The Faculty of Protestant Theology in the same town had 6 professors and 19 students in 1920-21; the *Faculty of Catholic Theology*, which has already appointed several of its professors, has not yet been able to begin work, because the negotiations between the Holy See and the Government concerning the syllabus are not yet concluded, and have been suspended for the time being.

The Academy of Law at Kosice, the library of which contains more than 32,000 volumes, including many ancient Hungarian books, had a staff of 11 professors and readers in 1920-21.

III. — INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

All the universities in Czechoslovakia exchange their publications with the principal universities throughout the world and the individual faculties also effect exchanges with parallel institutions in foreign countries (1). Foreign languages and literature are also taught at all universities in the Republic. At the Czech university in Prague, there are regular chairs for the Slav, French, English and German languages, modern Arabic and the Semitic dialects; Italian, Polish, Lusatian-Serb tongue, Lithuanian, Latvian, Hungarian and Dutch are also taught for speaking purposes; finally, there are courses in the literatures of all these languages—especially Slav, French, English, Italian, German, Arabic and Dutch—and lectures on foreign institutions are given in the Faculty of Law. At the German university in the same city the French, English, Slav (Czech, Polish, Russian and Bulgarian) languages and literature are taught, as well as the principal languages and literatures of the Near East (Turkey, Syria, Arabia, Abyssinia, Persia, etc.) and of India; Spanish, Portuguese, Hungarian and Italian are also taught for speaking purposes. The English, French and German languages and literature are taught at the University of Brno, as well as Slovak, Russian and Italian. With a view to encouraging the study of the French language and civilisation, the French Government, in November 1920, founded the French Institute at Prague, with Professor A. Tibal as Director; at this institute, which since 1921 has been officially styled the "Ernest Denis Institute", public lectures have been organised on the French language, literature, geography, history, etc., as well as private lectures on the French language and practical exercises; the special courses for the Russian students in Prague have also been arranged at this institute. One of the five professors of this institute, M. Alfred Fichelle, former Director of Studies at the University of Lille, was appointed in 1922 to the University of Brno, where he lectures in French history and geography, directs the practical work, and gives explanations of texts. In 1923, the *Istituto di cultura italiana* was founded on a rather different basis; it possesses a library of its own, and its aims are akin to those of the French institute.

Since 1920, numerous foreign professors have gone to Prague to give single lectures or short courses. The following list of these visits was prepared in the Rector's offices at the Charles University :

On October 31st, 1920, Ernest Denis, professor at the Sorbonne, spoke on the relations between France and Czechoslovakia and on events in the history of Czechoslovakia (1 lecture).

On May 18th, 1920, Ant. Meillet, professor at the Collège de France, gave one lecture on grammatical genders. In 1920-21, Professor J. A. James from Evanston lectured on the development of institutions in the United States. In the same year, Professor Francesco Toracca, from the University of Naples, lectured on Dante Alighieri; and M. R. Demogue, professor at the Sorbonne, spoke on the fundamental principles of civil responsibility.

During the summer term of 1921, Professor Arthur I. Andrews, from Tufts College (Boston), lectured at the Faculty of Law on the following subjects : An historical survey of the fundamental policies of the United States; Slavic and American institutions; history of the Slavs from an American standpoint.

(1) For example, the Faculty of Protestant Theology at Prague exchanges its publications with the *Faculté Libre de Théologie Protestante* in Paris and with the *Faculté de Théologie Protestante* at the University of Strasburg, and also with the theological colleges at Aberdeen, Edinburgh and Glasgow (of the United Free Church of Scotland), Belfast (Presbyterian Church of Ireland) and Princeton (Presbyterian Church in the United States of America) and with the "Union Theological Seminary" at New York.

On May 17th and 19th, 1922, Dr. Victor Henri, professor at the University of Zurich, lectured on the structure of matter (2 lectures).

On June 22nd, 1922, Professor Vl. Vernadskij, director of the Radiological Institute at the Russian Academy of Science, spoke on : (1) the chemical structure of living matter; (2) Radioactive elements.

Professor Baudouin de Courtenay, of the University of Warsaw, lectured during the whole summer term at the Faculty of Philosophy.

During the same term, Professor Vahan Totomianz lectured at the Faculty of Law on the history, theory and practice of co-operative societies.

On October 7th, 9th, 14th, 1922, Dr. Ales Hrdlicka, Curator of the Department of Physical Anthropology at the National Museum in Washington, spoke on the following subjects : the origin of man; the population of the globe; the origin, past, present and future of the Slavs, and in particular of the Czechs and Slovaks.

On December 6th, 11th and 13th, 1922, Mr. MacCracken, President of Vassar College, New York, gave three lectures at the Faculty of Philosophy on Education for Democracy; organisation of American education; the forces at work in American education.

The great Indian writer, Rabindranath Tagore, also visited the university in 1921 and in May 1923. Sir Harry F. Wilson gave a lecture on the British Empire, under the auspices of the "Imperial Studies Committee of the Royal Colonial Institute".

From information subsequently received from the Charles university, it appears that the following foreign professors also lectured during the scholastic year 1922-23 : E. de Martonne (Sorbonne), A. Munoz (Rome), N. G. Jorga (Bucharest), P. Monroe (Columbia University, New York), G. Knight (Ohio), W. Caldwell (Montreal), Ch. Pergameni (Brussels) and A. Newton (London).

The many Russian and Ukrainian professors who have emigrated to Prague have organised special University lectures in that city.

Several foreign professors, after having visited Prague, gave lectures at the Universities of Brno and Bratislava. For instance, Professor Torraca gave a lecture at Masaryk University on the occasion of the Dante Quincentenary.

Professors at Charles University have naturally given but few lectures abroad on account of the depreciation of the currency, which makes travelling expenses too heavy. The following lectures should, however, be mentioned :

Dr. J. Vajs, Professor at the Faculty of Theology, lectured at the Bibliological Institute in Rome in 1922-23 on the Grammar of Old Slavonic;

Dr. François Drtina, Professor at the Faculty of Philosophy, lectured in Strasburg at the end of April and at the Sorbonne at the beginning of May on the humanitarian ideas of Comenius and on Masaryk, who restored Czech independence.

Dr. Lubor Niederle lectured at the Sorbonne in May 1922 on the evolution of the Czech nation;

Professor Vaclav Tille lectured in 1920-21 at the International University of Brussels on Czech thinkers in many ages and on religion in Czechoslovakia.

The state of the exchange also made it difficult for the University of Prague, and still more so for the provincial universities, to send delegates to university and scientific congresses abroad. The Charles University was, however, represented, in 1920, at the anniversary of the Academy of Medicine in Paris in 1921, at the foundation of the new University Library at Louvain, and at the Congresses on the History of Medicine and on the History of Art at Paris. In 1922, the Czechoslovak universities sent delegates to Padua on the occasion of the 600th anniversary of that university, to the tenth Otological Congress held at Paris, and the second assembly of the International Research Council at Brussels. The three Czechoslovak universities sent their special delegates to the International Congress of Historical Sciences held at Brussels in April 1923, and the Faculty of Medicine at the Charles University sent a representative to the Pasteur Festival in May of the same year.

In conclusion, it should be stated that Professor Tille of Charles University, who also represented the Masaryk University, took part in three sessions (1920, 1921 and 1922) of the International University of Brussels, with which the University of Prague is associated. The Central Federation of Czechoslovak Students forms part of the International Confederation of Students, and has, since its foundation in 1919, taken part in all the congresses held by that Confederation, including the congress of 1921, which was held at Prague; the Czechoslovak Federation of Catholic Students has become affiliated with the "Pax Romana" (International Secretariat of the Catholic Students' Association) at Fribourg.

Exchanges of students or professors between Czechoslovakia and other countries have not yet been systematically organised. Agreements which the Czechoslovak Government is negotiating in respect of the matter with other countries—for example, with Belgium, Poland, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, etc.—will certainly promote the development of such exchanges and will fix the precise conditions upon which courses of study and university degrees in these countries may be recognised as equivalent.

At present there are no special regulations in the Czechoslovak universities for determining this question and a decision has to be made for each particular case. Nationals of foreign States can be admitted as regular students if their preliminary training has, in the opinion of the dean of the faculty in which they desire to become enrolled, been equivalent to that required from Czechoslovak nationals, or if they produce satisfactory diplomas awarded by foreign universities; they can, however, only be admitted to the study of pharmacy if the practical work which they have done and their preliminary examination in pharmacy are recognised as satisfactory by the Ministry of Public Education. With regard to the admission of free students who are not entitled to present themselves for examination, no difference is made between nationals and foreigners.

Formerly, nationals and foreigners paid the same matriculation fees; this fee has now been doubled in the case of foreigners (60 crowns instead of 30). Similarly, the fees charged each term for entry upon the rolls, which until 1922 were 2.10 crowns per hour per week for all students, are at present higher (12 crowns instead of 8) for foreigners, who also have to pay 20 crowns instead of 10 at each entry for the use of the library. Finally, foreigners are as a rule charged double fees for all examinations and awards of degrees. In certain cases deserving of consideration, the fees charged to foreigners may, however, be reduced to the same amounts as those paid by Czechoslovakian nationals.

With regard to admission to examinations, studies pursued at a foreign university are as a rule taken into account. Each law student must, however, be entered on the rolls of a Czechoslovak faculty at least for the term preceding and the two terms following the examination in historical law, which is taken after the third of the eight compulsory terms; similarly, medical students who wish to take the examination for the doctor's degree must keep at least half their terms before and after the first "rigorosum" at a Czechoslovak university. This examination is held after the fourth of the ten compulsory terms. In the case of candidates for the degree of doctor of philosophy (*ès lettres*) or natural science, no difference is made between terms kept in Czechoslovakia or abroad.

Foreign students are particularly numerous at the Czech university in Prague, and have increased rapidly since 1918, whereas before the War (in 1913-14) there were only 27 foreign students and during the War practically none; it is true that at that time there were a certain number of students at the university coming from the non-Czech provinces of the old Austrian Empire (126 in 1913-14), from Hungary (8) and from Bosnia (15). Since the formation of the Czechoslovak State, foreign students who are nationals of the various Slav countries have been coming to the Charles University in large numbers. One-half of the number of foreigners consists of Yugoslavs (240 in 1918-19, 611 in 1919-20, 702 in 1920-21, 705 in 1921-22); next in number are the Ukrainians, who have been especially numerous since the Bolshevik invasion of their country in 1920 (3 in 1918-19, 37 in 1919-20, 233 in 1920-21, 438 in 1921-22), and, since 1921, the Russians (284 in 1921-22), whereas there were but few of them in previous years; the number of Poles, which in 1919-20 had reached a maximum of 106,

fell in 1921-22 to 22, and the number of Bulgars also fell from 101 (1920-21) to 82 (1921-22). With regard to non-Slav races, the Roumanians alone sent a fairly strong contingent (121 in 1921-22). There were 22 Austrian and 27 Hungarian nationals in 1920-21. The total number of foreign students for the four academic years from 1918-19 to 1921-22 was as follows : 349, 815, 1,213 and 1,680. It is interesting to note that the great majority of these foreigners (1,173 in 1921-22) were students in the medical faculty; almost all the Yugoslav and Bulgar students attend that faculty. Since 1921-22, the number of examinations passed by foreign students has been recorded separately : in the Faculty of Medicine this figure is very high (452 examinations and 108 degrees obtained—more than one-third of the total number); in the Faculty of Law there were also a large number of these examinations (95 examinations and 27 degrees), whilst in the Faculties of Philosophy and Science there were very few.

At the German university in Prague there are still, as before the War, about a score of German nationals. The Russians, who were numerous before the War (126 in 1913-14), are now reduced to an insignificant total; the same applies to the Hungarians and Bulgars; the number of Austrians, Poles, Ukrainians and Yugoslavs, of whom there were still a fair number in 1919-20, is also decreasing. At the present time, the Roumanian nationals are the most numerous—more than 60 a term. Just before the War the total number of foreigners was 164, and since 1918 the average total has been upwards of 200 (maximum of 294 in 1920-21).

There are few foreign students at the provincial universities. There were, however, 76 at Brno during the winter of 1921 and 111 during the summer of 1922. The majority of these are Russians and Ukrainians, to whom there must be added a few Yugoslavs and Bulgars.

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GENEVA, January 1st, 1924.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

MINUTES

OF THE

THIRD SESSION

Paris, December 5th to December 8th, 1923

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
First Meeting , held on December 5th, 1923, at 10 a.m.	9
91. Speech of the Chairman	9
92. Suggestions for the Organisation of the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation... ..	9
Second Meeting , held on December 5th, 1923, at 3 p.m.	12
93. Exchange of Publications	12
Third Meeting , held on December 6th, 1923, at 10 a.m.... ..	14
94. Exchange of Publications (<i>continuation of the discussion</i>)... ..	14
95. Establishment of Offices for Bibliographical Information : Proposal of the Austrian National Committee	16
96. Establishment of a Central Office for Scientific Publications : Proposal of M. Struve... ..	16
Fourth Meeting , held on December 6th, 1923, at 3.30 p.m.	17
97. Exchange of Students	17
98. Exchange of Professors	18
99. Exchange of Young University Men.	19
100. Austrian Universities and Institutes : Dismissal of Staff	19
101. Travelling Students : Proposals of the Lithuanian National Committee... ..	20
Fifth Meeting , held on December 7th, 1923, at 10 a.m.	20
102. Appeal in Favour of the University Library of Tokio... ..	20
103. Decisions of the Assembly and the Council regarding the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation	21
104. Closure of the Discussion with the Members of the National Committees... ..	22
Sixth Meeting , held on December 7th, 1923, at 3 p.m.	22
105. Proposals of the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property	22
106. Protection of Professional Titles	24
Seventh Meeting , held on December 8th, 1923, at 10 a.m.	25
107. Registry of International Associations... ..	25
108. Proposals of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography	25
109. Hearing of M. Coville on the Co-ordination of Libraries	27
110. Proposal of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography regarding the Enquiry into Libraries	28
Eighth Meeting , held on December 8th, 1923, at 3 p.m.	29
111. Proposals of the Spanish Government	29
112. Possible Changes in the Method of appointing Members of the Committee and of enlarging the Number	29
113. Proposals of the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations	31

LIST OF ANNEXES

<i>Annex 1.</i>	
Organisation of the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation : Draft of General Rules	34
<i>Annex 2.</i>	
Suggestions for the Organisation of National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation... ..	34
<i>Annex 3.</i>	
Organisation of International Intellectual Assistance : Report by the Secretariat... ..	35
<i>Annex 4.</i>	
Organisation of International Intellectual Assistance : Proposal of the Roumanian National Committee	40
<i>Annex 5.</i>	
Organisation of International Intellectual Assistance : Proposals of the Czechoslovak National Committee... ..	40

	Page
<i>Annex 6.</i>	
Organisation of International Intellectual Assistance : Proposals of the Lithuanian National Committee	41
<i>Annex 7.</i>	
Organisation of International Intellectual Assistance : Proposals of the Greek National Committee	41
<i>Annex 8.</i>	
Organisation of International Intellectual Assistance : Proposal of the Polish National Committee	43
<i>Annex 9.</i>	
Exchange of Zoological, Botanical and Geological Specimens : Proposal of the Lithuanian National Committee	44
<i>Annex 10.</i>	
Compulsory Exchange of Publications : Proposal of the Greek National Committee... ..	44
<i>Annex 11.</i>	
Bibliographical Information Offices : Proposal of the Austrian National Committee... ..	45
<i>Annex 12.</i>	
Establishment of a Central Office for Scientific Information : Proposal of the Czechoslovak National Committee... ..	45
<i>Annex 13.</i>	
Exchange of Students : Resolution of the University Sub-Committee... ..	45
<i>Annex 14.</i>	
University Exchanges : Proposal of the Roumanian National Committee... ..	46
<i>Annex 15.</i>	
Extract from the Minutes of the Second Session of the Austrian National Committee... ..	46
<i>Annex 16.</i>	
Travelling Students : Note by the Lithuanian National Committee... ..	47
<i>Annex 17.</i>	
Appeal on behalf of the Library of the University of Tokio, submitted to the Committee by Dr. Nitobé	47
<i>Annex 18.</i>	
National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation : Memorandum by the Secretariat... ..	48
<i>Annex 19.</i>	
Extract from the Minutes of the Third Session of the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property	49
<i>Annex 20.</i>	
Extract from the Minutes of the Fourth Session of the Bibliographical Sub-Committee	50

COMPOSITION OF THE COMMITTEE.

Members :

- | | |
|--------------------------|--|
| Mr. D. N. BANNERJEA, | Former Professor of English Literature, Murray College, Sialkot; former Professor of English and Economics under the Department of Public Instruction, Punjab. |
| M. H. BERGSON, | Honorary Professor of Philosophy at the Collège de France; Member of the French Academy and of the Académie des Sciences morales et politiques; Associate of the Académie royale de Belgique; Corresponding Fellow of the British Academy; Foreign Hon. Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh; Foreign Member of the "Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei", Rome, of the Royal Danish Scientific Society, Copenhagen, and of the Institut national genevois. |
| Mlle. K. BONNEVIE, | Professor of Zoology at the University of Christiania; Member of the Academy of Sciences of Christiania; Norwegian Delegate at the Assembly of the League of Nations. |
| M. A. DE CASTRO, | Professor of Clinical Medicine and Director of the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Rio de Janeiro; Member of the Brazilian Academy. |
| Mme. CURIE-SKLODOWSKA, | Professor of Physics at the University of Paris; Honorary Professor of the University of Warsaw; Member of the Paris Académie de Médecine, of the Polish Academy and of the Scientific Society at Warsaw; Foreign Member of the Amsterdam and Stockholm Academies of Sciences. |
| M. J. DESTRÉE, | Deputy; Former Minister for Sciences and Arts; Member of the Académie royale de Belgique and of the Académie belge de langue et de littérature françaises. |
| M. H. A. LORENTZ, | Professor of Theoretical Physics at the University of Leyden; Member of the Amsterdam Academy of Science; Honorary Member of the Vienna Academy of Sciences; Foreign Member of the Royal Society of London and of the "Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei", Rome; Foreign Associate of the Academy of Sciences, Paris, and the National Academy of Sciences at Washington; Secretary-General of the Netherlands Scientific Society, Haarlem. |
| Mr. R. A. MILLIKAN, | Director of the Norman Bridge Laboratory of Physics at the California Institute of Technology; Foreign Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences, Washington; Vice-President of the National Research Council; Member of the International Research Council; Exchange Professor to Belgium. |
| Mr. G. A. MURRAY, | Professor of Greek at Oxford University; Member of the Council of the British Academy; Delegate of South Africa to the Assembly of the League of Nations; President of the Executive Committee of the League of Nations Union. |
| M. G. DE REYNOLD, | Professor of French Literature and Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Berne; Vice-President of the Catholic Union for International Studies and of the Swiss Federation of Intellectual Workers. |
| M. F. RUFFINI, | Professor of Ecclesiastical Law at the University of Turin; Senator; former Minister of Public Education; President of the Royal Academy of Turin; Corresponding Member of the "Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei", Rome; President of the Italian League of Nations Union. |
| M. L. DE TORRES-QUEVEDO, | Director of the Madrid Electro-Mechanical Laboratory; Member of the "Junta para Ampliación de Estudios"; Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Madrid. |

At this session of the Committee, M. de Castro was replaced by M. A. ZEREGA-FOMBONA, of the University of Caracas, professor at the Free College of Social Sciences at Paris ; M. Destrée was replaced during the first meeting by M. H. LAFONTAINE, Vice-President of the Belgian Senate, Secretary-General of the Union of International Associations ; Dr. Millikan was replaced throughout the session by Dr. W. G. LELAND, of the Historical Department of the Carnegie Institute, delegate of the American Council of Learned Societies to the International Academic Union, assisted by Dr. A. COLEMAN, professor of French Language and Literature at the University of Chicago, director of the American University Union in Europe ; Prof. Murray was also replaced throughout the session by Mr. H. J. PATON, Fellow and Lecturer of Queen's College, Oxford.

Austrian Correspondent :

M. A. DOPSCH.

Professor of General History and former Rector of the University of Vienna ; Member of the Vienna Academy of Sciences.

Experts :

M. G. CASTELLA,

Professor of Swiss History and General History at the University of Friburg.

M. J. LUCHAIRE,

Honorary Professor of the University of Grenoble ; Inspector-General of Public Education in France.

M. H. REVERDIN,

Professor of Philosophy at the University of Geneva.

Representative of the Secretary-General of the League of Nations :

M. I. NITOBÉ,

Professor of Colonial History at the University of Tokio ; Under-Secretary-General of the League of Nations, and Director of the Section of International Bureaux.

Representative of the International Labour Office :

M. W. MARTIN,

Privat-Docent at the University of Geneva ; Technical Adviser to the International Labour Office.

Secretary of the Committee and Sub-Committees :

M. O. DE HALECKI,

Professor of Eastern European History and former Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Warsaw ; Member of Section at the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

COMPOSITION OF SUB-COMMITTEES.

(1) *Bibliography.*

M. BERGSON, Chairman

Mlle. BONNEVIE

Mme. CURIE-SKLODOWSKA

M. DESTRÉE, replaced by

M. LAFONTAINE.

M. M. GODET,

Mr. C. T. HAGBERG WRIGHT,

Mr. J. R. SCHRAMM,

Members of the Committee.

Director of the Swiss National Library.

Director of the London Library.

Professor of Botany at the Cornell University, Ithaca ;

Member of the American National Research Council,

(2) *Inter-University Relations.*

M. BERGSON, Chairman.

M. DE CASTRO, replaced by M. ZEREGA-FOMBONA.

M. DESTRÉE, replaced by M. LAFONTAINE.

Mr. MILLIKAN, replaced by M. LELAND and Mr. COLEMAN.

Mr. MURRAY, replaced by Mr. H. J. PATON.

M. DE REYNOLD.

(3) *Intellectual Property.*

M. BERGSON, Chairman.

M. DESTRÉE.

Mr. MILLIKAN, replaced by Mr. LELAND.

M. DE REYNOLD (absent from this session).

M. RUFFINI.

M. DE TORRES-QUEVEDO.

M. W. MARTIN.

Members of the Committee.

DELEGATES OF THE NATIONAL COMMITTEES
ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

<i>Austria :</i>	M. A. DOPSCH,	Correspondent of the International Committee (see above).
<i>Bulgaria :</i>	M. S. KYROFF.	Professor of Bulgarian Law and former Rector of the University of Sofia ; Member of the Academy of Sciences of Bulgaria ; President of the United Bulgarian Societies for the Federation of the Peoples.
<i>Czechoslovakia :</i>	M. V. POSEJPAL,	Professor of Physics at the Czech University of Prague ; Member of the Czech Royal Society of Sciences.
<i>Esthonia :</i>	(Esthonia did not send a delegate to this session.)	
<i>Finland :</i>	M. A. WALLENSKÖLD,	Professor of Romance Philology at the University of Helsingfors ; Vice-President of the Society of Sciences of Finland.
<i>Greece :</i>	M. G. REMOUNDOS,	Professor of Mathematics at the University of Athens, at the National Polytechnic School, and at the High School of Commercial Studies.
<i>Hungary :</i>	M. A. DE PAULER,	Professor of Philosophy at the University of Budapest ; Member of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. (Accompanied by M. ORTUTAY-TISZTI as expert.)
<i>Latvia :</i>	M. E. FELSBERG,	Professor of Classical Philology and the History of Art ; former Rector of the University of Riga ; Chairman of the Committee.
<i>Lithuania :</i>	M. T. IVANAUSKAS,	Professor of Zoology at the University of Kovno. (Accompanied by M. E. BALOGH, Professor of Roman Law at the University of Kovno and Secretary-General of the Lithuanian Committee, as expert.)
<i>Poland :</i>	M. K. LUTOSTANSKI,	Professor of Civil Law at the University of Warsaw President of the Mianowski Foundation (Institute for the Encouragement of Scientific Work).
<i>Roumania :</i>	M. G. MARINESCO,	Professor of Neurology at the University of Bucarest ; Member of the Roumanian Academy ; Correspondent of the Academy of Medicine of Paris.
<i>Russia (Committee for Russian Emigrants) :</i>		
	M. P. STRUVE,	Professor of the Russian Faculty of Law at Prague ; Member of the Russian Academy of Sciences.
<i>Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes :</i>	M. N. VULIC,	Professor of Ancient History at the University of Belgrade ; Member of the Royal Serbian Academy ; Chairman of the Committee.



LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

MINUTES OF THE THIRD SESSION

FIRST MEETING

held on Wednesday, December 5th, 1923, at 10 a.m.

Present : All the members of the Committee, with the exception of : M. de Castro, whose place was taken by M. Zerega-Fombona ; M. Destrée, whose place was taken by M. Lafontaine ; Professor Gilbert Murray, whose place was taken by Mr. H. J. Paton ; and Dr. Millikan, whose place was taken by Dr. Leland, assisted by Professor Coleman. The delegates of the National Committees also attended.

91. SPEECH OF THE CHAIRMAN.

The CHAIRMAN welcomed the delegates of the National Committees and recalled the fact that the International Committee had only been in existence for a year and a half. During this time, the Committee had conscientiously worked at the considerable task with which it had been entrusted. This task had consisted in endeavouring to establish, by means of agreement between the intellectuals of the different countries, an organisation of scientific studies which would obtain the maximum result by means of a minimum effort. In working to attain this end, the Committee had also desired to assist the League of Nations in the cause which it had undertaken to defend : the cause of better relations between nations. These better relations were, above all, brought about by collaboration between men of good-will, particularly in the intellectual field, where it was certainly easier to obtain immediate results.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation found itself at a turning-point in its history. It had begun the examination of many problems. It must now, thanks to the advice and assistance which the National Committees had been kind enough to give, achieve some practical result.

92. SUGGESTIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION OF THE NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

The SECRETARY read a note by the Secretariat on the question (see Annex 1).

M. LORENTZ was happy to note that the Secretariat's memorandum laid down the principle of entire freedom in the organisation of the National Committees. Quoting the example of the Netherlands, he pointed out that in that country it would not have been advisable to create a new Committee, as there were already many organisations carrying on work similar to that to be performed by the National Committee (Committee for the Distribution Abroad of Scientific Dutch Literature, which had been founded five years previously ; Intermediary International Institute, created in order to furnish information on questions of international law ; and organisations dealing with exchanges of students and professors).

It was necessary to allow these institutions to remain quite independent, but it would be desirable also to ensure their close contact with the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

The CHAIRMAN thought that this contact might be assured by M. Lorentz himself. He was of opinion, nevertheless, that, as a general rule, it would be preferable to establish a special organisation in countries where there were no organisations dealing precisely with the questions under examination by the Committee.

M. DE REYNOLD said that he was in agreement in principle with M. Lorentz, and he proposed to modify the second proposal contained in the Secretariat's memorandum. He gave information concerning the Swiss National Committee, which had practically been established. The National Committee comprised representatives of the Universities, of the Federal Polytechnic School, of the Federation of Intellectual Workers, of the Swiss Association for the League of Nations, etc.

MADAME CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA said that, if there were in existence in certain countries organisations of intellectual co-operation which preferred to remain separate, it would be extremely desirable that they should choose a common delegate to maintain contact with the International Committee.

M. LORENTZ said that in the case of the Netherlands the different organisations of which he had spoken had up to the moment worked independently, but he thought that an agreement between them would be useful and should be encouraged.

MADAME CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA emphasised the fact that the question of a common delegate arises only in the case of countries which are not represented on the International Committee.

M. RUFFINI agreed with M. Lorentz. The establishment of a National Committee might prove difficult, not only because of the susceptibility of existing institutions but also by reason of the geographical conditions of certain countries. Italy, for instance, possessed several intellectual centres. One intellectual institution had its seat in Rome, another in Turin, etc. A federation of these institutions might perhaps be desirable, and the International Committee should allow full liberty of action to the different countries in this respect.

M. LUTOSTANSKI, delegate of the Polish National Committee, said that Poland possessed a central organisation — an institute for the encouragement of scientific work — on which were represented universities, polytechnic schools and learned societies.

The Central Polish Committee was to be reformed in such a manner as to include several elements which would be represented on it by experts. Further, Poland had several intellectual centres and would set up local committees in each.

He considered it important to decide whether intellectual co-operation covered only scientific and university work. If that was not so, and if the arts were also included, the appointment of experts would have to be contemplated.

M. VULIC, delegate of the Serb-Croat-Slovene National Committee, said that it was obvious that the theatre, the arts and literature could not be neglected.

M. MARINESCO, delegate of the Roumanian National Committee, thought that it was essential to follow the principles of Taylorism. The end to be achieved was friendly action in common. The National Committees must preserve their independence, but they should have a central seat.

It was obvious that intellectual collaboration covered the arts, but at the moment laboratories and libraries were most in need of assistance.

In the composition of the National Committees, account should be made of the fundamental divisions of thought. In Roumania, the Committee comprised representatives of the Roumanian Academy, of scientific institutions and of learned societies, etc.

M. ZEREGA-FOMBONA asked how the National Committees should be formed in countries where no associations of intellectual co-operation yet existed. He thought that an invitation to form a National Committee should be sent to these countries.

On the proposal of the SECRETARY, *the Committee decided that the Latin-American Bureau attached to the Secretariat should be asked to forward the documents of the Committee and the minutes of the meetings to the Latin-American Governments concerned.*

The SECRETARY added that the Chilian delegate to the last Assembly had announced that a National Committee was about to be formed in his own country.

The CHAIRMAN read a telegram from M. de Castro, which had just been forwarded to him by the Brazilian Ambassador in Paris. The telegram announced the formation of a National Committee in Brazil.

M. STRUVE, representative of the Committee for Russian Emigrants, said, with regard to the composition of National Committees, that it seemed necessary to adopt a plan whereby all possible combinations could be taken into account. He pointed out that the delegates present were almost all university men and that, personally, he represented Russian university groups.

M. William MARTIN, representative of the International Labour Office, said that, though the advantages of leaving freedom of action to the committees were obvious, it was none the less true that it would be of equal advantage to give the National Committees certain instructions in order to preserve uniformity. The International Committee had the right to prefer uniformity to diversity. If it did not indicate its wishes in some countries, several committees with different objects in view might be established. In his opinion, one of the advantages of establishing National Committees lay in the fact that their existence would make it possible for all the intellectual elements in the same country to collaborate.

Mlle. BONNEVIE said that in Norway it had been thought good to leave the initiative of constituting the Committee to the Government. The Government's decision was not yet known, but an office was now in existence at the Ministry of Education which might act as the secretariat of the National Committee.

It would perhaps be of use to emphasise also the importance of the representation of students on the National Committees.

M. LAFONTAINE proposed that paragraph (d) of the second proposal should be modified. The formula of the principal academies or learned societies should be broadened to read somewhat as follows: "organisations established with the object of studying the various intellectual activities".

This proposal was adopted.

He was also in favour of the representation of students on the National Committees, but thought that in paragraph (b) of proposal No. 2, it was quite sufficient to refer to the Universities.

In view of the fact that the International Committee might one day consist of the National Committees meeting in union, it was important to recommend that a central organisation should be established in each country.

Mr. LELAND said that he was not in a position to give information regarding the possibility of establishing a National Committee in the United States. He could, however, say in any case that a scheme was in existence, based on one which had been put into practice, for ensuring the participation of the United States in the International Academic Union. This participation had been assured by the formation of a council comprising representatives of the American intellectual organisations. For the establishment of a National Committee, a council might be contemplated upon which would be represented the Academy of Arts and Sciences, the National Research Council, etc.

Regarding the representation of American students, Mr. Leland was of opinion that it would be sufficient to assure this through their professors.

M. de TORRES-QUEVEDO emphasised the importance of considering the countries where separatist tendencies were in existence. Would contact with the League be maintained by one delegate or by a representative of the different points of view.

M. FELSBERG, delegate of the Latvian National Committee, said that this Committee, which had been established some weeks previously, comprised representatives of the University, the Academy of Music, the Academy of Arts, the principal libraries and of the Government. It would be enlarged in order to comprise especially the representatives of students, since this step appeared necessary in view of the fact that one of the problems of intellectual co-operation was the exchange of students.

M. BALOGH, expert attached to the delegation of the Lithuanian National Committee, said that it was desirable for the National Committees to contain, as was the case in Lithuania, representatives of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Relations with the Government would in this way be greatly facilitated.

He was also of opinion that it would be useful to point out, by way of advice, that the National Committees could co-opt any person whose assistance they considered to be desirable.

M. LORENTZ approved the suggestions made by M. William Martin. It was desirable to obtain uniformity in the constitution of National Committees.

He was sure that the existing Committees in the Netherlands would certainly do their best to act in common agreement if the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation expressed a wish to that effect.

In certain countries difficulties might arise. He referred, for example, to a letter which he had just received from Czechoslovakia informing him of the formation of a provisional German committee side by side with the Czechoslovak Committee on Intellectual Co-operation which had already been set up.

M. WALLENSKÖLD, delegate of the Finnish National Committee, said that this Committee had been established very recently. Although he was in favour of as much independence as possible for the National Committees, he desired also to insist on the necessity of collaboration and unity.

M. DE PAULER, delegate of the Hungarian National Committee, said that this Committee had been founded a year previously. The Ministries of Foreign Affairs and Education were represented upon it. The representation of students appeared to him to be a delicate question.

In order to take account of the difficulties pointed out by M. Lorentz, and to avoid the formation of several committees in certain countries, he was of opinion that the National Committees ought to be organised under the auspices of the Academies of Science in each country.

M. LORENTZ said that this would be impossible in the Netherlands.

M. POSEJPAL, delegate of the Czechoslovak National Committee, said that the Academy of Sciences had taken the initiative in the creation of this Committee and had asked for the collaboration of other existing scientific associations.

He was of opinion that the National Committee might be enlarged so that the Germans in Czechoslovakia might no longer consider it necessary to establish a second committee.

M. BANNERJEA said that he had written to the Viceroy of India regarding the formation of a National Committee. The object of this Committee would be to act as a centre of co-ordination for the Indian Universities and to ensure contact with the intellectuals of Europe.

M. DE REYNOLD said that it was, above all, necessary to take a step forward and to obtain uniformity of action.

The CHAIRMAN, summing up the discussion, said that it seemed to be the opinion of the Committee that each country should be left free either to utilise one or more already existing organisations or to create a new body. But it seemed also that the Committee was inclined to recommend a concentration of effort in every case and an organisation specially directed towards this aim.

A certain organisation appeared to be necessary and, in countries where it was possible to establish a National Committee, it was certainly desirable that such a committee should be set up.

Madame CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA said it was essential that the International Committee should be able to communicate with each country through the intermediary of a single delegate.

The scheme presented by the Secretariat was approved, with the various amendments adopted during the discussion. The title was changed to "Suggestions for the Organisation of National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation" (Annex 2).

SECOND MEETING

held at 3 p.m. on Wednesday, December 5th, 1923.

Present : The persons present at the previous meeting, with the exception of Mme. Curie-Skłodowska. M. Destrée attended.

The CHAIRMAN welcomed M. Remoundos (Greece), who had arrived that morning. He asked the Secretary to explain the question of the exchange of publications.

93. EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS.

The SECRETARY presented his report and referred to the section dealing with the exchange of publications (Annex 3). If the Committee approved, he proposed to deal at that meeting with the first question (exchange of books and instruments). He reminded the Committee of the proposals formulated by the various National Committees and referred to the experiments made by the League of Nations, which gratuitously distributed its publications in a large number of countries and chose, if necessary, a central library for the deposit of its publications. He also referred to the opinion passed by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, which considered that it would be advisable to begin by exchanging lists of publications.

He referred also to the investigations pursued by the Committee and by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography with a view to the revision of the Conventions of 1886.

M. LORENTZ said he wished to explain the work of the Netherlands Committee, which had been founded forty years ago and which had just published a report which he was communicating to the Secretariat. This Committee, which had been instructed to facilitate the distribution of Dutch scientific works abroad, had first addressed a circular to the scientific institutions of the countries whose exchanges had fallen, offering them facilities for subscribing, at a reduced price or at the pre-war price calculated in the currency of their country, to the reviews which they received before the war.

Numerous requests had been received from a large number of countries (Austria, Germany, France, Belgium, Poland, Czechoslovakia, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Hungary, etc.), and requests had been made with regard to one thousand five hundred and fifty-two subscriptions. It has been possible to satisfy 381 of these requests.

The Committee had also appealed to scientific institutions and to publishers, many of whom had agreed to send their publications free of charge or with considerable reductions, amounting in some cases to 50 per cent.

The Netherlands Committee had been happy to note that there was a prospect of collaborating with the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation ; it would be able to serve as a body in communication with the League of Nations and with institutions of the same kind which might exist in other countries.

He referred to the composition of the Committee and emphasised the fact that it constituted an interesting private enterprise which had acquired the status of a legal person. He further noted that it was possible, as had been shown by the activities of this Committee, to appeal successfully to the publishers.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Lorentz for his very interesting communication. The Netherlands Committee had given an excellent example, and it was advisable for the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to give in the bulletin which was about to be issued the widest possible publicity to the efforts and to the results achieved by this Committee.

M. MARINEȘCO, delegate of the Roumanian National Committee, said that, as regards publications before the war, account should be taken of libraries which had been despoiled by the war. He referred to certain facilities which had been granted by French publishers, as well as the assistance which had already come from Great Britain and, above all, from America, and which might perhaps be still further developed.

The countries where civilisation was advanced were certainly prepared to give an example of international solidarity.

It was not a question of obtaining works and publications entirely without payment. The institutions which asked for assistance were ready to do everything possible in order to give all they could in return.

He suggested that perhaps larger editions of scientific publications might be issued and a certain number of copies presented to impoverished institutions on the understanding that time would be given for repayment of the cost of these publications.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Marinesco for his communication and asked him kindly to forward his suggestions to the Secretariat in writing (Annex 4).

M. FELSBERG (Latvia) said that the proposal of M. Marinesco was also of interest to Latvia, whose exchange was not particularly depreciated but whose University was of recent creation. The University Library was still inadequate for the large number of students frequenting it, and it experienced special difficulties in procuring English and French books, which were costly. Latvia was ready to do everything possible by means of exchanges. The National Library received three copies of all the works published in Latvia and could procure a greater number with a view to effecting exchanges.

Mr. PATON regretted that he had not been able to discuss matters at any very great length with Professor Gilbert Murray before his departure for Paris. If Great Britain appeared to be a little backward in this matter, this was because questions of a scientific character were not usually dealt with and regulated by official means. The question of the exchange of scientific publications undoubtedly enlisted the warm sympathy of British public opinion. As regards the method to be followed, he believed that it was necessary to act for the most part through private organisations. He had been extremely interested in the suggestions made by M. Marinesco, and he would hasten to communicate them to Professor Gilbert Murray and examine with him the means of effecting these exchanges.

The CHAIRMAN emphasised the importance of the declaration made by Mr. Paton and reminded the Committee of the effort made by Great Britain in creating a Universities Library for Central Europe.

M. KYROFF, delegate of the Bulgarian National Committee, said he had been instructed to present the same proposals which had just been formulated by M. Marinesco. The generous help, which had come principally from the United States (the Rockefeller Foundation and Smithsonian Institution) could not unhappily be regarded as more than a palliative.

The official assistance given by the Bulgarian Government did not suffice to meet the needs of the University. Would it not be possible to arrange a system according to which the Bulgarian University might be enabled to devote the inadequate annual credits allotted to it by the Government for the redemption of a loan to be contracted abroad?

M. BALOGH, Lithuanian expert, wished to draw the attention of the Committee to the necessity of affording international assistance not only to countries with a depreciated exchange but to new countries like Lithuania and to universities recently created which were developing civilisation in Eastern Europe. He suggested that each International Committee should get into touch with the Secretariat of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which might serve as an intermediary for the exchanges.

Mr. COLEMAN said he had not specially studied this question, but he knew from what had been already done, above all by private associations, that there was a lively desire in the United States to find a remedy for the present situation.

He had just received a letter from the Committee of his organisation in New York stating that it had at its disposal funds for this object and asking for information on the assistance which might be furnished. He was personally disposed, as well as Mr. Leland, to do his utmost to draw the attention of the American institutions to this question.

M. MARINESCO said that the United States had already done a great deal and might be assured of the gratitude of all the institutions which had been assisted.

Mlle. BONNEVIE said she wished to raise a question which was indirectly connected with that which was at present under discussion.

The reports and minutes of the majority of institutions and scientific bodies were published in compact and costly volumes which dealt with questions extremely diverse. She would like to propose that the example given by Sweden should be followed by other countries and that the publications of scientific bodies and institutions should be divided according to the different subjects treated. International exchanges would be greatly facilitated, thanks to this measure. This question had already been raised by Mme. Curie-Sklodowska at the first session of the Committee.

She proposed the following resolution :

"In the interest of a more active exchange of scientific papers, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation desires to encourage a division of the publications of scientific societies and bodies into specific series corresponding with the various branches of science and arts."

The resolution was adopted.

M. POSEPJAL (Czechoslovakia) said he wished to communicate to the Secretariat the proposals drafted by the Czechoslovak Committee on the three following questions (Annex 5) :

1. The establishment of an international office for the loan of books and instruments.
2. Specialisation in scientific laboratories.
3. The establishment of photographic studios attached to scientific institutions.

The CHAIRMAN said that the proposals presented by M. Posejpal would be distributed to the Committee with a view to their further examination.

M. LORENTZ said that a Committee had been founded in England on an international basis in order to send books and newspapers to Russia. Sir Arthur Schuster might be asked for information on what had been done in order that benefit might be derived from the experience thus acquired.

M. DE REYNOLD asked whether it would not be possible to establish a list of offers and requests for scientific publications after the necessary information had been obtained from the Governments and private organisations. This method had been followed in dealing with the question of the exchange of students.

M. LORENTZ said that this enquiry would be long and that the needs to be met were pressing.

The CHAIRMAN asked M. de Reynold to be kind enough to prepare for the next meeting a draft resolution on the subject.

M. STRUVE, delegate of the Committee for the Russian Emigrants, said he would like to extend the proposal for the creation of an office for exchanges : this office might also serve as an Inter-University Bureau for the printing and publication of original works.

The CHAIRMAN said that a proposal of this kind had already been forwarded by Mme. Curie-Sklodowska and that the Committee on Publications established by the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation was studying this difficult question.

M. VULIC, delegate of the National Committee of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, proposed the creation of large international libraries for special subjects.

The CHAIRMAN said that the Committee had considered at its first session a proposal even more extensive and that this proposal had been reduced to the proportions indicated by M. Vulic. The Sub-Committee on Bibliography was dealing with this question and would be happy to receive the suggestions of M. Vulic.

M. DE PAULER, delegate of the Hungarian National Committee, said that Hungary had adhered to the Convention of Brussels of 1886. In his opinion it was only by official intervention that the system of exchange of publications could be made to work in a satisfactory manner.

The SECRETARY read the proposals presented by the Lithuanian, Greek and Polish National Committees (Annexes 6, 7 and 8).

THIRD MEETING

held on Thursday, December 6th, 1923, at 10 a.m.

Present : The persons present at the previous meeting. Mme. Curie-Sklodowska attended.

94. EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS (*continuation of the discussion*).

M. IVANAUSKAS, delegate of the Lithuanian National Committee, proposed that the exchanges should be extended to zoological and botanical specimens (see Annex 9).

M. REMOUNDOS, delegate of the Greek National Committee, said that only the compulsory exchange of publications could be effective. He would like to complete the Greek proposal by indicating, for these exchanges, not a fixed number but a number in reversed proportion to the volume of each publication (see Annex 10).

The exchange would be either free of charge or arranged on the basis of a moderate price which did not exceed one-third of the ordinary price.

M. LUTOSTANSKI commented on the proposal of the Polish National Committee (Annex 8). He added that, although the countries with depreciated exchanges were placed in a deplorable situation, there was a danger that, in dealing first of all with the problem of assisting these countries, questions of principle might be neglected. The problem was to organise a general exchange of publications, for even rich countries did not place complete collections at the disposal of intellectual workers. In the majority of countries the funds at the disposal of the libraries were far from adequate, and it was important that there should exist in several intellectual centres complete collections of current scientific publications.

He accordingly proposed that publishers should be required to reserve twenty copies of their scientific publications for international exchanges.

The system of a local national deposit for publications should be extended to the international field ; such a measure would not necessitate any new obligation for States.

It would be objected that international scientific production was too vast to be concentrated in a single library. It would be easy to redistribute the publications between several libraries in each intellectual centre.

The Polish scheme did not, of course, exclude the other solutions which had been proposed, such as exchanges between scientific societies and exchanges of publications at a reduced price.

M. MARINESCO, delegate of the Roumanian National Committee, read his proposal (Annex 4).

The CHAIRMAN said that M. Marinesco was right in observing that the tendency of civilisation was to transfer what was optional to the field of obligation.

He read the proposals of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography (see Minute 108) concerning a conference for the exchange of publications.

He added that the four proposals which had been made would be annexed to the report which the Secretariat would prepare with a view to this conference.

M. BALOGH, Lithuanian expert, provisionally proposed that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, pending the revision of the Conventions of 1886, which might require a long time, should serve as intermediary for the exchange of publications between universities, academies, etc.

The CHAIRMAN said that the Secretariat of the Committee had already been entrusted with this work as far as it was possible to proceed.

M. BALOGH, Lithuanian expert, thought that the International Committee should make a general appeal, as had been done in the case of Austria.

It might distribute the publications which it received among the universities which had most need of them.

M. LORENTZ said that certain speakers had referred to obligatory measures imposed by Governments upon publishers, authors and learned societies. He would point out that in many countries the existing laws did not permit such measures to be imposed, and it was very doubtful whether new laws could be voted. Action must be limited to issuing recommendations which the National Committees would be asked to take into consideration.

M. LUCHAIRE said that the Committee appeared to be pursuing the same object by two parallel methods : first, by the revision of the Conventions of 1886, and, secondly, by the organisation of exchanges by means of National Committees. He thought it would be wise to distinguish for the sake of method between official and non-official publications. Official publications might be exchanged by means of bureaux set up under the Conventions of 1886. Non-official publications might be exchanged by means of the National Committees.

The SECRETARY observed that the bureaux already dealt with the exchange of unofficial publications at their own discretion and without payment.

M. DE REYNOLD submitted the following draft resolution :

“(1) The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, after having heard the delegates of the National Committees, notes to what extent intellectual life and intellectual studies are still hampered by the economic difficulties and distress in a considerable portion of Europe. It feels it is its duty once again to draw the attention of countries where intellectual life is normal and prosperous to a situation in which the future of civilisation as a whole is directly involved. It appeals to the feelings of solidarity which should unite intellectual people throughout the world and invites them to collaborate in the work of intellectual co-operation instituted by the League of Nations.

“(2) The Committee will do its utmost in proportion to its means, which at present are not upon a level with existing needs, to develop and, above all, to systematise mutual intellectual assistance on the basis of exchanges.

“(3) It accordingly begs the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation in new countries, or countries whose exchanges are depreciated, to draw up a list as complete and precise as possible of the most urgent needs of their higher educational establishments, laboratories and libraries. These lists will be published in the bulletin of the International University Information Office and communicated to the National Committees of the countries whose exchanges are more favourable, or to institutions which are pursuing similar objects. The plenary Committee is fully aware from previous experience that these institutions and these National Committees will do their utmost to satisfy the requests addressed to them as far as it is possible to do so.”

The resolution was adopted.

95 ESTABLISHMENT OF OFFICES FOR BIBLIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION : PROPOSAL OF THE AUSTRIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

M. DOPSCH submitted the following scheme on behalf of the Austrian National Committee :

(1) It is proposed to create in all countries an office for bibliographical information. These offices would be in close touch with one another and would render all the libraries more easily accessible.

(2) These offices would enjoy free postage for their correspondence and for the despatch of letters or would at least have the benefit of the tariff for internal postage in making despatches abroad.

M. BALOGH, Lithuanian expert, asked that books thus despatched might also be exempt from Customs taxes.

The SECRETARY observed that the proposal of M. Dopsch contained two distinct ideas :

(1) The establishment of offices for bibliographical information.

(2) The despatch of books, which was already assured in all countries which had adhered to the Conventions of 1886, by means of the bureaux of exchange. In other countries the bibliographical offices might be used for this purpose.

M. LUCHAIRE said that only the libraries could organise the bibliographical information services contemplated in the Austrian proposal. He pointed out that at Paris the War Museum Library had organised a service of this kind for questions of contemporary history.

M. DE REYNOLD read a passage of the second report of the Committee concerning this question.

M. LORENTZ thought that the Committee should request the National Committees to deal with the subject.

M. DE REYNOLD said that this would be possible, for example, in Switzerland, where the National Committee would probably establish its secretariat at the National Swiss Library at Berne.

M. POSEJPAL, delegate of the Czechoslovak National Committee, said that this Committee had made a proposal which completed that of the Austrian Committee. The Czechoslovak Committee had proposed (Annex 5) the establishment of a central office which would serve as an intermediary for the borrowing of books.

M. BALOGH, Lithuanian expert, said that the National Committees might render important services in the carrying-out of the scheme of M. Dopsch, seeing that these Committees contained specialists in various sciences who would be in a position to give the necessary bibliographical information.

The proposal of M. DOPSCH was amended in conformity with the suggestions of M. BALOGH, as regards the exemption of Customs taxes, and of the SECRETARY, who referred to the decision of the Committee in regard to the use to be made of the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels as a central office (Annex 11).

96. ESTABLISHMENT OF A CENTRAL OFFICE FOR SCIENTIFIC PUBLICATIONS : PROPOSAL OF M. STRUVE.

M. STRUVE, delegate of the Committee for Russian Emigrants, read the following proposal :

"The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should establish an office whose task would be to act as an intermediary body for the printing of original scientific works recommended by the respective National Committees."

This proposal was supported by M. POSEJPAL, who read a note (Annex 12) recommending the distribution of works already printed and their translation into a language in general use.

Mme. CURIE-SKLODOWSKA reminded the Committee that it had already studied this question while examining the proposal of M. Klemensiewicz for the publication of an international scientific review. The Committee had noted that this problem raised certain difficulties.

M. DE REYNOLD believed that it would be possible to ask the National Committees to draw attention to interesting works which should be published.

M. LORENTZ thought that it would be dangerous to give to the National Committees the task of judging of the value of scientific works. It was the academies and scientific journals which should be asked to undertake this work.

M. VULIC, delegate of the Serb-Croat-Slovene National Committee, observed that the men of science of his country had for a long time formed the habit of publishing their works in foreign languages and of contributing to foreign reviews. In a sense, all the reviews were international.

M. MARINESCO, delegate of the Roumanian National Committee, added that there existed national reviews which, in addition to original articles, published summaries of these articles in languages which were generally in use.

Mlle. BONNEVIE said that she shared the apprehensions of M. Lorentz. It was impossible to ask the National Committees to judge the value of scientific publications. All the more

so as at present men of science were specialists, and that there might not exist in any National Committee anyone competent to judge a particular scientific work.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA said that consideration must be given to men of science who did not know in what review their works could be published. It would be useful in this case for the National Committees, without judging the value of the contributions, to be in a position to act as intermediaries and to send them to the scientific journal which was able to publish these particulars works.

M. STRUVE supported this proposal. Since the war, certain periodicals had disappeared, and there was a considerable uncertainty as regards publication. Men of science were obliged to look towards new countries and to create for themselves new relations.

M. LORENTZ said that he did not at all propose to exclude the possibility of sending scientific works to the National Committees.

M. BALOGH, Lithuanian expert, said it would be dangerous to establish the intermediary agency recommended by M. Struve. Certain National Committees might be hurt if manuscripts recommended by them were not published.

On the proposal of the CHAIRMAN, *the question was referred to the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, in accordance with the following resolution :*

"The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation requests the Sub-Committee on Bibliography to study methods of facilitating the printing of original scientific works and the distribution of published works in a language in general use."

FOURTH MEETING

held on Thursday, December 6th, 1923, at 3.30 p.m.

Present : The persons present at the previous meeting.

The CHAIRMAN asked the Secretary to explain the second part of his report (Annex 3).

The SECRETARY summarised and commented upon the second part of his report concerning the exchange of professors, students and of young university men. He reminded the Committee, in referring to the third question, that the Health Section of the League of Nations had organised exchanges of health staff. Finally, he read them the resolution of the University Sub-Committee (Annex 13) adopted during its conference with the representatives of the students, as well as the proposals formulated by the Roumanian National Committee (Annex 14).

The CHAIRMAN proposed, if the Committee agreed, that the discussion might begin with an examination of the question of the exchange of students, a subject on which the University Sub-Committee had reached some conclusions.

97. EXCHANGE OF STUDENTS.

M. LORENTZ thought that, in order to encourage these exchanges, considerable financial means were necessary and that these means could not be furnished either by the Universities or by the Governments. It would be necessary to appeal, in the first instance, to private initiative, and for this purpose to leave the widest possible discretion to the National Committees.

The CHAIRMAN said that the question of a possible appeal for funds to be issued by the Committee would be discussed on the following day. He reminded the Committee that the University Sub-Committee had recommended an enquiry to be addressed to the Governments and higher educational establishments.

M. LUCHAIRE, referring to the observations of M. Lorentz, said that certain countries had made considerable efforts in this direction. For example, the French budget contained fairly considerable credits, up to a total of nearly seven millions, in order to encourage the residence of foreign students in France, as well as the work of education abroad.

Mlle. BONNEVIE said that the questionnaire which had been proposed should contain the following question : "The Universities and Governments are requested to indicate to what extent foreign students are able to benefit from scholarships and various foundations".

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA pointed out that foundations and gifts made for the creation of scholarships had often a very precise object which could not be ignored.

The number of scholarships was generally inadequate, and it was accordingly difficult, except where there were provisions to the contrary, to give foreign students a preference over national students.

M. ZEREGA-FOMBONA referred to the collaboration which had been established between Mexico and an American foundation for foreign students,

M. BALOGH, Lithuanian expert, described the effort made in this connection by the Rockefeller Foundation and the Carnegie Foundation. It was necessary to leave a wide discretion to the various National Committees and to obtain all possible facilities from the Governments. In order to guarantee the necessary impartiality, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might distribute between the various National Committees the available positions and posts.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA thought that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might encourage donations of a character clearly international, like the Curie-Carnegie scholarship.

M. STRUVE (Committee for Russian Emigrants) said he would like to draw attention to the magnificent effort which had been made in Czechoslovakia on behalf of Russian students and professors.

M. LUCHAIRE recalled that a special University organisation had been established for the young Russians living in Paris.

M. MARINESCO referred to the efforts made by certain Governments in order to assist their students to travel abroad.

It was for the Governments who desired to send their students to other countries to make the first efforts, but the countries where these students were destined to be sent should on their side give them all possible help and information in order to assist them in their studies.

M. LORENTZ said that in his previous statement he had the Netherlands particularly in mind, where it would be possible to act chiefly through private initiative.

He reminded the Committee of the traditions of hospitality which the Dutch Universities had always extended to foreigners.

M. IVANAUSKAS (Lithuania) drew the attention of the Committee to the importance of giving foreign students access to the Biological Institutes which, for reasons of climate, only existed in certain countries. Lithuania had applied without success to Germany, but Lithuanian students had obtained facilities in certain laboratories in Italy and France which it would be desirable to develop.

The CHAIRMAN noted as a result of the discussion that the delegates of the National Committees approved the conclusions reached by the Sub-Committee. It will be useful, however, to define these conclusions more precisely and to develop them in accordance with the observations which had just been presented.

98. EXCHANGE OF PROFESSORS.

M. LORENTZ thought that an exchange of professors might be arranged in two ways : either directly by an agreement between the Universities or interested countries, or indirectly by means of a list of offers and requests as described in the report of the Secretariat (Annex 3). He thought it advisable that these two methods should be mentioned.

Dr. NITOBÉ asked the National Committees to send the Secretariat precise information in regard to the salaries of professors in the various countries. The bulletin which was to appear would publish this information. It was also important to define the procedure to be followed in communicating these offers and requests. The information might be sent to the national offices, or the National Committees might serve as intermediaries, or the communications might be forwarded to the various Universities. It was for each country to indicate the method which it preferred.

Mr. BANNERJEA said that there were two kinds of countries : those between which conventions dealing with these exchanges had been concluded, and countries in which there was no kind of organisation for this purpose. The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should, in his opinion, encourage the conclusion of similar conventions and furnish the Governments with all the information which they might request for this purpose. The exchange of professors seemed easy in theory, but it would encounter certain material difficulties which it would be well, so far as possible, to remove.

Mlle. BONNEVIE raised the question of the relations between the professors coming from abroad and the students. These professors generally gave a short series of lectures which did not figure in the regular programme of university students. It would, in her opinion, be useful for foreign professors to give courses of longer duration, half-yearly courses for example, and for these courses to form part of the programme of studies for graduates. She proposed that this question should be studied by the National Committees.

M. WALLENSKÖLD, referring to the suggestion of Dr. Nitobé, said that information regarding the salaries of professors would be only of relative utility in view of the very different position existing in the various countries and the different problems which arose in each country in regard to the remuneration of foreign professors.

Dr. NITOBÉ pointed out that these facts would only be requested for purposes of information, and in order to enable the Secretariat to furnish at once any details for which it might be asked in this connection.

M. LORENTZ did not quite agree with Mlle. Bonnevie in regard to the necessity of considering the courses of foreign professors as normal university courses. In any case, these foreign professors should not act as examiners.

Mlle. BONNEVIE said that this also was her opinion. Foreign professors should not form part of the examining boards. She had merely wished to draw the attention of the National Committees to this question. Foreign Universities would be free to take in this respect any decisions which they might desire.

M. VULIC, delegate of the Serb-Croat-Slovene National Committee, emphasised the great utility of these exchanges, above all for little countries. He described the system of exchanges existing between the Serb-Croat-Slovene Universities. This system might be extended internationally.

M. BALOGH, Lithuanian expert, thought that the courses of foreign professors were extremely useful, above all for graduates.

It might be possible to give a foreign professor his national salary, plus costs of removal, and an indemnity of 50 per cent of his salary, which would be paid by the Government which had invited him.

M. DE REYNOLD thought that the question of the exchange of professors raised delicate problems in regard to the autonomy of Universities and the sovereignty of States. The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, in his opinion, should confine itself to encouraging these exchanges and to the preparation of conventions which should be concluded for this purpose between the various countries.

Mr. BANNERJEA believed that the professors who went to distant countries would be obliged to give courses of a fairly long duration and that it was necessary for them to know the language of the country in which they resided, or, at least, to be familiar with English.

M. MARINESCO thought the question was extremely complex and that it was for the Governments to deal with it. He insisted upon the distinction to be drawn between lecturers who went abroad to give a few lectures of a general character and professors and experts who resided in a foreign University for a longer period.

M. ZEREGA-FOMBONA drew attention to the exchanges which had been arranged between Brazil, Uruguay, the Argentine Republic and France.

The CHAIRMAN noted that all the suggestions presented emphasised the complexity and the difficulty of the problem, but thought that the bulletin which was to be published would constitute a valuable method of communication with a view to facilitating an exchange of information regarding the experiments which were made.

99. EXCHANGES OF YOUNG UNIVERSITY MEN.

M. LORENTZ said that a place must also be found in these exchanges for young physicists and biologists working in the laboratories. The Cryogene Laboratory of Leyden had included several foreign assistants, and in certain French and English laboratories foreign students were admitted, some of whom received a salary.

M. BALOGH, Lithuanian expert, said that it was very important to reserve for students proceeding abroad certain facilities and some leisure in order to enable them to devote themselves to their studies outside the hours of their regular work.

Dr. DE PAULER, delegate of the Hungarian National Committee, pointed out that the language difficulties were greater for book students than for students working in laboratories.

M. KYROFF, delegate of the Bulgarian National Committee, emphasised the importance of arranging for students and professors to travel during the holidays.

M. REMOUNDOS, delegate of the Greek National Committee, thought that the activity of the National Committees might assist in solving all the difficulties. Therefore, before all, these Committees should be well organised and receive moral and financial support.

The CHAIRMAN, in conclusion, noted that the part to be played by the National Committees was of the first importance and that the offer made by these Committees to do their utmost in order to facilitate these exchanges was of excellent augury for the future.

100. AUSTRIAN UNIVERSITIES AND INSTITUTES : DISMISSAL OF STAFF.

M. DOPSCH raised the question of the supplementary staff of the Austrian Universities and Scientific Institutes which, under the scheme of financial reform, had been dismissed and replaced in some cases by younger and less-experienced men — a fact which constituted a real danger for the university and intellectual life in Austria.

He would ask the Committee to address to M. Zimmerman a resolution requesting that these dismissals should be limited to the strict minimum and should only be made after consultation with the university authorities (see also Annex 15).

M. DE REYNOLD thought that the Committee was incompetent to address the Government on a question of internal administration.

M. DOPSCH pointed out that the present case was of quite a special character, since M. Zimmerman was a representative of the League of Nations.

The CHAIRMAN noted that there arose in this connection a question of a legal character on which it would be advisable to have the opinion of the members of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

M. RUFFINI thought that the objection of M. de Reynold would apply in the case of a country whose situation was normal, but Austria was regulated by a financial system controlled by the League of Nations. The Committee was therefore, in his opinion, qualified to address to the Council of the League of Nations a resolution on this subject.

M. BALOGH supported and developed M. Dopsch's proposal.

M. LORENTZ asked whether the resolution, if adopted by the Committee, might not be forwarded direct to M. Zimmerman instead of being dealt with by the Council.

M. DE REYNOLD insisted upon the advisory character of the Committee. He thought it preferable, in deference to the Council, that those who were interested in the question should themselves approach the Council, which would doubtless refer the question to the Committee.

M. DE PAULER, delegate of the Hungarian National Committee, pointed out that the same question might arise in other countries, and that a general declaration, requesting that such dismissals should only be effected after consultation with the university authorities, would be very useful.

M. William MARTIN also thought this problem was not specifically Austrian. It would arise in other countries. The Committee might therefore keep this question for further study. It was part of the problem of the unemployment of the intellectual classes which the special Committee on Intellectual Property had already started to examine.

The CHAIRMAN, summarising the discussion, noted that the Committee was not prepared to intervene. The Council would know that the question had been submitted to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and that the Committee had thought that the persons interested might address themselves directly to the Council, which would consider whether it should refer the question back to the Committee.

Moreover, it would be advisable to study the general problem raised by M. William Martin without reference to a particular case.

M. LORENTZ and M. LUCHAIRE said that it was not proposed specially to favour the intellectual workers, but it might be reasonably asked that intellectual workers should not be treated worse than the manual workers.

M. LUCHAIRE reminded the Committee, as M. William Martin had done, that the Association internationale contre le Chômage had studied this question but that its definition of the word "intellectual" (intellectual = non-manual) should first be discussed.

M. William MARTIN pointed out that the class of workers with which the Committee was dealing came within this more general definition.

101. TRAVELLING STUDENTS : PROPOSALS OF THE LITHUANIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

M. IVANAUSKAS, delegate of the Lithuanian National Committee, read a note on travelling students (see Annex 16).

The CHAIRMAN pointed out that the resolution of the Assembly adopted on September 28th corresponded with the views expressed by M. Ivanauskas but that notice would be taken of his proposal.

FIFTH MEETING

held on Friday, December 7th, 1923, at 10 a.m.

Present : The persons present at the previous meeting.

102. APPEAL IN FAVOUR OF THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY OF TOKYO.

Dr. NITOBÉ, after having reminded the Committee of the Assembly's resolution in favour of the reconstruction of those intellectual centres in Japan which had been destroyed by the earthquake, read a proposal in favour of the restoration of foreign collections in the library of the Imperial University at Tokyo. This library had lost seven thousand volumes (see Annex 17).

M. DESTREE said that, to all those who had had the good fortune to visit Tokyo before the catastrophe, the news of the disaster which had befallen the capital of Japan had come with special force. He reminded the Committee of the manner in which the Library of Louvain had been reconstructed by international assistance, and he had no doubt that the Library of Tokyo could be restored by making an appeal to the intellectual solidarity of the peoples.

M. LUCHAIRE recalled that a French Committee had been formed in Paris in order to contribute to the reconstruction of the Tokyo Library.

M. BALOGH, Lithuanian expert, said that he was in favour of an appeal being made to all the institutions in the world. He asked that at the same time an appeal should be made to international intellectual solidarity in favour of the libraries and universities of the new Baltic countries, which urgently needed books.

Mr. PATON said that such an appeal as that suggested by M. Destrée would be certain to arouse sympathy and support in England, and he mentioned that the University Press of Oxford had already decided to send to Japan a large number of important volumes.

Mr. LELAND said that Mr. Coleman and he supported the proposal made by Dr. Nitobé, and that they would forward the appeal of the International Committee to the American institutions.

M. ZEREGA-FOMBONA thought he was voicing the opinions of Latin America in saying that it would do all that was possible to send publications to the library of the University of Tokyo.

On the proposal of M. DE REYNOLD, *it was decided* that a general appeal, similar to that which had been made in favour of Austria, should be sent to the whole world, and that at the same time the National Committees should be asked to do all that was possible in their respective countries.

103. DECISIONS OF THE ASSEMBLY AND THE COUNCIL REGARDING THE NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

The Committee took note of the memorandum prepared on this subject by the Secretariat (Annex 18).

The Committee particularly examined what measures the Council could take with regard to those countries where National Committees had not yet been established.

Mlle. BONNEVIE suggested that the Governments of countries where no National Committees yet existed should be invited to take the initiative and to form a committee.

M. BALOGH proposed to approach rather the universities and learned societies.

On the suggestion of the SECRETARY, *it was decided* to attach to the Council's appeal a list of the existing National Committees and to request the Governments of countries where committees did not yet exist to take the initiative in establishing a committee or to point out an institution to which the International Committee could have recourse in order to bring about the establishment of a National Committee.

M. DESTRÉE agreed with this proposal.

Nevertheless, he pointed out that two possible methods were open to the Committee : either a spontaneous establishment of National Committees or their establishment on the initiative of the Government of the country.

The first method appeared to him to be preferable. The spontaneous establishment of committees composed of the most representative elements of the nation and removed from all political influence would be of greater worth than the establishment of a committee on the initiative of the Government. It had been said that the Governments might perhaps be more willing to subsidise a committee constituted on their own initiative. In general, however, it was better for the intellectual persons of each country to be self-supporting and to obtain from private enterprise the small amount of money which was needed for the proper working of their committees.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA drew the attention of the Committee on the resolution of the Assembly which asked the Council to authorise the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to receive from any institution or from any private person interested in its activities grants necessary for the accomplishment of its purpose. She thought it desirable that an appeal for funds should be launched, and that the gravity of the dangers which menaced intellectual life should be mentioned in this appeal.

The donors should be invited to allow the Committee to make immediate use of their donations, if necessary, without being obliged to capitalise them. The crisis through which intellectual life was passing might be compared with the material catastrophes to repair which capital donations and not income were expended. She was also of opinion that it would be useful to draw up a list of the possible forms which donations could take (grants in aid, financial support for scientific publications, etc.). This list would be attached to the appeal. In case of important donations, it might be useful to inform the donors of the manner in which the sums they had placed at the disposal of the Committee would be expended.

M. RUFFINI supported Mme. Curie-Sklodowska's proposal. He pointed out that the Committee did not possess any legal status, and it would therefore be difficult for it to receive funds of which it would only expend the income.

M. DESTRÉE said that, although the Committee might not be qualified to receive donations, this was not the case with the National Committees if they possessed a legal status. He therefore proposed to invite the National Committees to acquire a legal status whenever the legislation of their country so permitted.

With regard to donations, and, in particular, legacies left to the Committee, these should be granted to the League of Nations for the use of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

It was decided that M. DESTRÉE and the SECRETARY should prepare a text on the subject of donations.

Mlle. BONNEVIE said that, while the Committee was awaiting the money, it might be useful to make an appeal to existing funds. She pointed out, in particular, the Oersted Fund, a Danish fund of an international character set aside for the assistance of the sciences.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA proposed that an appeal should be made to all institutions of an international character which might be interested in the work of the Committee.

On the proposal of Mlle. BONNEVIE, the Secretariat was requested to study the question of this appeal and to ascertain in what cases it would be better to make an official appeal and in what cases it would be better to make an unofficial appeal.

M. STRUVE attached great importance to the question raised by M. Destrée on the subject of legal status. He pointed out that the organisation of Russian intellectuals abroad had already been legally recognised in Czechoslovakia.

On the proposal of M. BALOGH, Lithuanian expert, *it was decided* to request the National Committees to endeavour to obtain legal and public recognition.

On the proposal of M. LORENTZ, the Committee authorised its members to do what was possible to obtain donations either for their National Committees or for the International Committee. Such funds as were received by the International Committee would be sent to the treasurer of the League of Nations and would be earmarked for the Committee's use.

With regard to the general appeal, to be published in the Press and sent to institutions, M. LORENTZ said that the circular to institutions should be accompanied by a special letter drawing attention to the importance of the appeal and requesting each institution to afford it the largest possible publicity.

104. CLOSURE OF THE DISCUSSION WITH THE MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL COMMITTEES.

The CHAIRMAN expressed the great pleasure of the members of the International Committee in having been enabled to come into contact with the delegates of the National Committees.

On certain points, the information furnished by these delegates had been of a new character, but on others they had only repeated ideas which had already been expressed in the International Committee. In these cases also, however, the information furnished by the delegates of the National Committees had been of use, for they had thus shown the International Committee that it was proceeding in the proper direction and had confirmed it in its opinions.

No decisions could be taken immediately, because the Committee was only an advisory body of the League of Nations. Further, experience had shown that decisions should not be taken in haste. In view of the fact that questions of intellectual co-operation were of a delicate nature, they ought for the most part to be examined beforehand, not by the Committee itself but by its sub-committees with the assistance of experts.

He thanked the delegates of the National Committees for their collaboration in the work of the International Committee, and expressed the hope that the first occasion on which the International Committee had come into contact with the National Committees would be followed by many others.

M. VULIĆ thanked the Chairman for the ability with which he had presided over the work of the session. The delegates of the National Committees would each return to their own countries with happy recollections of the contact established with the International Committee.

M. WALLENSKÖLD, on behalf of the delegates, expressed their thanks to the Secretary of the International Committee.

Mr. BANNERJEA said that important results had been obtained on this first occasion of the collaboration of the International Committee with the National Committees. He expressed the hope that, if the delegates of the National Committees, on returning to their country, thought that the best means for facilitating intellectual co-operation would be to establish an international university, they would inform the Secretariat of this opinion, which would forward their recommendations to the International Committee.

SIXTH MEETING

held on Friday, December 7th, 1923, at 3 p.m.

Present : The persons present at the previous meeting, except the delegates of the National Committees.

On the proposal of the CHAIRMAN, the Committee decided to follow the method which it had adopted at the last session and to examine in succession the reports of the three sub-committees.

105. PROPOSALS OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY.

The SECRETARY said that it had been materially impossible to prepare and distribute a report on the whole work of the Sub-Committee which was in session on November 28th and 29th. He gave a short account of the results of this session (see Annex 19) and read the resolutions which had been adopted by the Sub-Committee.

With regard to the question of the Charterhouse at Capri, the Sub-Committee had decided to entrust M. Ruffini and M. Destrée with the duty of undertaking an enquiry and submitting a report on the question at the next session of the Sub-Committee.

The proposal of M. de Castro concerning the establishment of international prizes had been adjourned owing to the absence of the author of this proposal. Nevertheless, the Sub-Committee had adopted the following resolution :

“ The Sub-Committee proposes that the International Office for University Information shall draw up as soon as possible a list of international awards of all kinds and of national awards accessible to foreigners at present available for scientific, artistic and literary work. This list shall be published by the Office. ”

The Sub-Committee had examined various persons on the question of artistic and literary property, and had adopted the following resolution on the subject drafted by M. Destrée :

“ The first step for assuring the continuation and development of artistic work is to enable the artist to live by his work. ”

“ For that purpose, it is desirable that in all countries, legislation (as identical as possible in principle, and in each case completed by international agreements) should guarantee authors' rights under the following conditions :

“ (a) The author, during his life, and his heirs for a specified time, shall have the exclusive right of publication, production, reproduction and exploitation of the work of art in any way whatever. ”

“ (b) After the lapse of this right, and during a new period more or less extended, the right to draw a profit from the work belongs to a National Fund of Fine Arts, administered by artists under the direction of the State and working for the objects of art generally (*domaine public payant*). ”

“ (c) This right should be completed by other inalienable rights : (1) the *droit de suite*, permitting the artist or his heirs, and the public, to claim a right on all successive public sales of his work ; (2) the *droit au respect*, permitting the artist, in spite of the transfer of his work, to prohibit any disfigurement. ”

On the first point (the question of Capri), the Committee confirmed the Sub-Committee's decision.

With regard to the second question (proposal of M. de Castro), Mr. PATON pointed out that the enquiry might prove to be of a very extensive character.

Persons of all nationalities could for the most part compete for prizes offered by English universities.

M. DESTRÉE emphasised the utility of such a list.

Mlle. BONNEVIE thought that this question could be added to the questionnaire sent to the various universities.

Mr. LELAND thought that all rewards of a strictly university character offered by the various universities to students of all nationalities who attended them should be excluded from this enquiry. Further, a distinction must be drawn between prizes of a truly international character, offered by international organisations, and prizes founded by national organisations for which the nationals of various countries could compete. In his opinion, the number of international prizes was not large.

M. LAFONTAINE said that these international prizes numbered about ten.

Mr. PATON pointed out that the scholarships at English Universities might be granted to foreigners.

Mr. LELAND thought that the question of scholarships came rather within the domain of the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations.

The CHAIRMAN noted that the discussion which had taken place showed that the Committee was agreed upon the utility of a list of this kind.

Thanks to the periodical bulletin of the International Office, it would be possible to publish in a series the results of the enquiry.

It would therefore be best to do what was most urgent, leaving out of account prizes of a strictly university character and scholarships to universities.

M. RUFFINI emphasised the importance of the resolutions put forward by M. Destrée on artistic and literary property. He reminded the Committee that a bill had been put forward in Italy by M. Polacco and that Poland was preparing very modern and detailed legislation on the question.

M. DESTRÉE agreed with M. Ruffini regarding the importance and urgency of the problem. It was being examined in a great number of countries, and the intervention of the League would have the sympathy of artistic and literary circles. He was of opinion that it would be necessary to present a concrete scheme for the protection of artistic property (which naturally included literary property). This scheme would be similar to the one prepared by M. Ruffini

on scientific property, which had aroused such great interest. This would entail considerable work necessitating a close examination of the various legislations.

M. Destrée was ready to undertake it if the Committee approved the general principles. The principles involved were as follows :

(1) The principle of the protection of the author's right properly so-called, which was being more and more admitted and which had already been made the object of international conventions.

(2) The principle of the *domaine public payant*. This would enable a progressive collection to be made of the necessary resources for the encouragement of artistic and literary work by means of a special national fund.

(3) The complementary principles : (a) of the *droit de suite*, which would assure to the writer and the artist a certain portion of the profits realised from the successive sales of his work (this principle had already been introduced into French and Belgian legislation); and (b) the principle of the *droit au respect*, or "moral right", by which a literary or artistic work would be protected from being mutilated or spoiled.

M. RUFFINI emphasised once more the interest which had been aroused in Italy by these questions. An article on the *droit de suite* had been added to Senator Polacco's scheme, and a movement for the adoption of the principle of *domaine public payant* and of the *droit au respect* had been begun by the *Corriere della Sera*.

The question of the protection of artistic and literary property was also of more concern to a larger number of persons than the protection of scientific property.

Mr. PATON recognised the importance and urgency of these questions. He feared, however, that it would be difficult for certain members of the Committee to give their immediate approval to the proposals which had been submitted.

Above all, he hesitated to approve of the proposal to create a national fund which would be established as the result of the adoption of the principle of *domaine public payant*.

He thought, nevertheless, that the examination of these questions should be continued.

M. DE REYNOLD pointed out that, for the moment, the Committee was not called upon to approve a given scheme but only to recognise the interest which these problems had aroused and to continue the examination of them, first in the Sub-Committee and then in the full Committee.

Further, the question of the *droit au respect* differed according as to whether the person concerned was a man of letters, a painter, a sculptor or a musician.

M. DESTRÉE reminded the Committee of the examples given to the Sub-Committee by M. Georges Lecomte, President of the "Société des Gens de Lettres" of France, and the propaganda which had been conducted for fifty years by that society in favour of the *droit au respect*.

M. LUCHAIRE wished to add, by way of information, that a bill providing the *droit au respect* had recently been submitted by M. Paisant to the French Parliament.

As the result of the discussion, the Committee adopted the following resolution :

"The Committee, after having noted with the greatest interest the general principles on which M. Destrée proposes to base his work, begs M. Destrée to draft a detailed scheme for the reform of the protection of artistic and literary property."

The Committee endorsed the following resolution adopted by the Sub-Committee on the subject of the Berne Conventions :

"The Sub-Committee, as an urgent and practical measure, asks the League of Nations, in conformity with the recommendation made by the Conference of Genoa in April 1922, to invite the nations which have not already done so to adhere to the Conventions of Berne concerning authors' rights."

106. PROTECTION OF PROFESSIONAL TITLES.

The SECRETARY read the following resolution adopted by the Sub-Committee :

"The Sub-Committee, thinks it desirable to ensure protection for professional titles against the competition of those who lay claim to them without having pursued the studies which justify the confidence publicly placed in these titles.

"In order to define the penalties which may be desirable and their international character, the Sub-Committee believes it necessary that an enquiry should be undertaken concerning the conditions necessary to ensure such protection in the various countries and in respect of the various titles."

M. William MARTIN reminded the Committee of the preliminary enquiry on this subject. During the enquiry on the conditions of engineers and chemists, he would collect information regarding those professions which would be of interest to the Committee.

The examination of this question should be based on the existing legislation in the various countries.

M. DESTRÉE recalled the abuses mentioned by M. Gallié (Secretary-General of the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers) regarding the misuse of certain titles (barristers, architects, engineers), and emphasised the importance of protecting professional titles, both from the point of view of the general public and from that of encouraging persons to qualify for these professions.

M. William MARTIN, in reply to Mlle. BONNEVIE, who had stated that this question ought to be settled separately by the various States, pointed out that the question was very closely allied to intellectual exchanges and was of international concern, because a purely national solution would render more difficult the migration of intellectuals from one country to another.

M. LORENTZ thought that this enquiry should be confined to professions in which grave abuses actually existed.

The CHAIRMAN noted that it appeared, from the discussion, that the members of the Committee were greatly interested in the scheme.

Perhaps the International Labour Office could continue this enquiry.

M. William MARTIN replied that he could not undertake to do this, because the question was on the border-line of the competence of the International Labour Office. But, as he had previously said, he would collect the necessary factors for an examination of the position of engineers and chemists.

M. DE REYNOLD suggested that the Committee might first of all concern itself with the protection of university titles.

M. DESTRÉE was of opinion that the question of university titles was more connected with the equivalence of diplomas, which had been discussed by another sub-committee.

In reply to a question from M. LORENTZ, M. DESTRÉE said that it was the various professional associations which had requested the intervention of the Committee.

He thought that the first step which should be taken would be to send a letter to the various countries asking them to state what were the abuses which prevailed, what was the legislation on the question, and what were the remedies proposed.

M. LUCHAIRE agreed with M. Destrée's suggestion.

Progress should be made by successive stages. The question of an international legal status was very complex, and for the moment the Committee should rest content with endeavouring to assure better national protection of titles. It was better also to distinguish between the question of titles and the question of the right to exercise a profession, which was an entirely different problem.

It was decided that M. Lafontaine and M. Destrée, in agreement with M. William Martin and in collaboration with the Secretariat, should undertake a preliminary enquiry before the next session, of which the Committee would examine the conclusions.

SEVENTH MEETING

held on Saturday, December 8th, 1923, at 10 a.m.

Present : The persons present at the previous meeting.

07. REGISTRY OF INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

The Committee noted the resolutions of the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property :

“ The Sub-Committee on Intellectual Co-operation asks the Council to authorise the International Bureaux Section of the League of Nations to open a register for the inscription of international associations and institutions of a scientific and artistic and literary character. Inscription shall be authorised only if no other association or institution of the same title has been previously inscribed. The International Bureaux Section may, before authorising inscription, make inquiries in order to verify the standing of the persons who do not present the necessary qualifications, and it may be postponed until the association or the institution has given proofs of its activity and importance. ”

The Committee decided to approve the resolution in principle and to request the Legal Section of the Secretariat of the League to examine it.

08. PROPOSALS OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE ON BIBLIOGRAPHY.

The SECRETARY summarised the work of the fourth session of the Sub-Committee, which had taken place on November 30th and December 1st (see Annex 20). He read the resolutions adopted by the Sub-Committee.

The Committee adopted the following proposals of the Sub-Committee on the co-ordination of analytical bibliography :

" I. In conformity with the authorisation given by the Fourth Assembly of the League of Nations, the Committee decides that the technical conferences entrusted with the work of co-ordinating analytical bibliography for physics and physical chemistry shall be held on the occasion of the next session of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography.

" The Sub-Committee will invite for this purpose the ' Union internationale de la Physique pure et appliquée ', the ' Journal de Physique ', the ' Journal de Chimie Physique ', ' Science Abstracts ', and the ' National Research Council of the United States ' each to send a representative to this session, which will be held at Brussels after Easter 1924, almost at the same time as the ' Conseil international de Physique (Solvay) '.

" The Sub-Committee will also invite persons competent to inform it as to the present condition of bibliography in the German language for physics and physical chemistry.

" The ' Union internationale de Chimie pure et appliquée ' will also be consulted in determining the limits of the field to be covered in respect of physical chemistry."

" II. The Sub-Committee proposes that the Secretariat of the Committee should conduct an enquiry into the present condition of bibliography (bibliography according to titles and analytical bibliography) for Greek and Latin studies in the various countries.

The Secretariat was requested to send out official invitations to the Technical Conference for the Co-ordination of Abstracts for Physics and Physical Chemistry.

The Committee adopted the following scheme, proposed by the Sub-Committee, for the summoning of a conference for the revision at some future date of the Conventions of 1886 on the exchange of publications :

" The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation notes with satisfaction that the Fourth Assembly has adopted the recommendation of the Committee regarding a conference of experts which will prepare for the revision of the International Conventions of 1886 on the Exchange of Publications.

" The Committee begs the Council to authorise it to summon this conference before the next Assembly.

" For this purpose, the Committee asks its secretariat to prepare a memorandum summarising the work and discussions on the exchange of publications of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography. This memorandum will be submitted to the Chairman of the Committee for his approval and communicated to the Members of the Council before its session of March next.

" The Committee now lays down some instructions on which the Secretariat memorandum should be based :

" (a) General principles :

" The Committee affirms the unquestionable advantages which would result for all the countries of the world if each possessed all the official and scientific publications of the other countries of use to them.

" The Committee recognises, at the same time, certain difficulties which have been pointed out, notably that the needs of men of learning and research workers vary considerably in the various countries, and that the publications to be exchanged are sometimes far from having equivalent value.

" The Committee does not ignore that the highest developed and richest countries consider it a duty to participate in every way and to their utmost in the general culture of humanity.

" As, however, the importance and cost of certain official or non-official publications is so great that the obligation of remitting a large number of copies for legal deposit would be a heavy charge, the Committee approves the proposal that the States should first reciprocally communicate lists of publications for exchange, from which each State would be free to make a choice.

" The Committee insists, on the other hand, that free international postage should be granted for all despatches, both for the States and for the private scientific or literary institutions.

" (b) Composition and agenda of the conference :

" The Committee is of the opinion that it would suffice to invite four or five experts to the conference, chosen from among the persons most competent on the subject. This conference should undertake, in agreement with the representatives of the Committee, the modifications necessary in the Conventions of 1886. Amongst others, it would examine the following points :

" (1) Extension of the Conventions to countries which up to the present have not adhered.

" (2) Improvement in the working of the exchange services (more frequent despatch, unification of procedure, etc.).

" (3) Regular publication of lists of official publications, and, if necessary, of non-official publications which would be available for international exchange.

" (4) Granting of free postage.

" (5) Encouragement and development of the exchange of non-official scientific and literary publications."

The Committee unanimously adopted the proposals of the Sub-Committee regarding the use to be made of the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels :

“With a view to carrying out the resolution of the Assembly of the League of Nations of September 27th, 1923, regarding the use to be made of the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels, the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, considering the necessity of creating for bibliography a permanent organ of liaison and information, and believing that it is preferable to use an existing institution rather than to create a new one at great cost, proposes to confide this work to the International Institute at Brussels, giving it the means for developing its bibliography catalogues and its collections of bibliographical works, and to use its bulletin as an organ of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for bibliographical questions.

“With regard to the alphabetical list mentioned in the resolution of the Committee of July 1923, the Sub-Committee thinks that for the moment it would be best to recommend the competent institutions to consent to the gratuitous despatch to the Institute of catalogues and bibliographies published under their auspices (five copies if possible).

“The Sub-Committee proposes that the Committee appoint three persons to draw up a draft agreement with the International Institute to be submitted to the Sub-Committee at its next session.

“The draft shall comprise a programme of work, the subsidy to be granted, and proposals concerning the organisation of control.”

The delegation referred to in the proposals was made up in the following manner : M. Des-
trée, M. Godet, Mr. Schramm and Mr. Hagberg Wright.

109. HEARING OF M. COVILLE ON THE CO-ORDINATION OF LIBRARIES.

M. COVILLE, Director of Higher Education in France, who had been requested by the Committee to explain the French Government's scheme for the reorganisation of the Paris libraries, pointed out in the first place that there was an important bibliographical publication in the press. It was a collection of scientific periodicals contained in the Paris libraries.

The French Government desired to make accessible the great collections scattered throughout the numerous libraries in Paris.

The libraries in general use (the National Library, the Mazarine, Ste.-Geneviève and the Arsenal Libraries) were ancient foundations consisting of the various collections which had been given to them during the centuries. Their riches had been accumulated without any bibliographical plan. Side by side with these libraries there were others of more recent date in existence answering better the needs of modern work. These were more specialised collections, such as, for example, the Library of Art and Archæology, which had been left to the University of Paris, and the Library of the War Museum, where there was a large collection of international documents of contemporary history, and where a well-organised office of bibliographical information was in existence.

The French Government, endeavouring as far as possible to act upon the resolutions of the Committee on co-ordination of the libraries, desired to adapt all the collections of Paris to the needs of modern work. This adaptation was a necessity in view of the fact that financial difficulties prevented the proper development of the various existing institutions.

In accordance with the French Government's scheme, the four great general collections of books were to be combined, but not under one roof, since this would entail too great an expense and might also not prove to be of assistance unless the collection had important resources for its administration. The scheme was therefore to put these general collections under a single administrative unit, directed by one person and possessing one governing body.

The expert council would be concerned with the distribution of books on special subjects between these libraries and would supervise the acquisition of fresh works in order to avoid duplication of work where that was unnecessary.

Later on, the work of distribution could be carried out between the libraries in such a manner as to reserve for each collection a special branch of intellectual activity.

Further, in each library would be found a catalogue of the other libraries, as well as an information office whose duty it would be to act as a guide to users of the library and to give them bibliographical advice either on the spot or by correspondence. The staff of this office would consist of persons who had not only the necessary educational qualifications but who were also competent in the work of general bibliography.

The libraries could not expand to any considerable extent by means of the purchase of books, their great resource being the compulsory deposit of books by publishers. Unfortunately, at the moment, the provisions of French legislation were insufficient and many books were not compulsorily deposited in the libraries. Parliament had been requested to vote a bill setting up a system of legal compulsory deposit and at the same time guaranteeing the rights of the authors and publishers who made that deposit.

With regard to collections of foreign books, the French Government hoped that, as in Paris well-organised libraries were in existence where the international output of books was easily accessible (in accordance with the recommendation of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation), the League of Nations would take into consideration the recommendation of the Committee with regard to the exchange of books and of periodicals between States which in this way had co-ordinated their libraries.

M. COVILLE thought that it was in the field of bibliographical collaboration that the Committee could achieve the quickest and more certain results. In this field it would not encounter the obstacles which tradition and the various differences of nationality raised by questions of inter-university collaboration.

Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA asked if the new French bill for the compulsory deposit of books provided for the deposit of only two copies. For the purpose of international exchanges a greater number of copies would be necessary. Should not the number of copies for deposit be fixed in accordance with requirements, and their value be deducted from the tax on profits?

M. COVILLE said that Mme. Curie-Skłodowska's proposal was of an interesting kind. It would perhaps be difficult to put it into practice from the point of view of the financial work involved. The bill as drafted only provided for the compulsory legal deposit of two copies.

In reply to a question of M. LUCHAIRE, M. COVILLE said that in France the principle of compulsory legal deposit was universally admitted.

M. RUFFINI said that the Italian law in force at the moment provided for the compulsory deposit of three copies, but, though the principle could not be called in question, the law did not work satisfactorily. He promised to inform the authorities of his country of the French scheme for establishing a special office with the assistance of authors and publishers.

M. DE REYNOLD referred to a recent decree of the Federal Swiss Tribunal which had done away with legal deposit as being anti-constitutional and contrary to the principle of the equality of all citizens before the law.

With regard to the reorganisation of the various libraries, M. DE REYNOLD was happy to think that the recommendations of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation had resulted in the scheme of the French Government. The Committee would be greatly encouraged.

He expressed the hope that in all countries which were endeavouring to facilitate bibliographical work the question of the loan of books from library to library should be dealt with in the most liberal manner possible. The system of loan had been established between Swiss libraries. He hoped that it would become an international system.

M. DESTRÉE hoped that the example given by France would not be lost sight of and that other countries, his own in particular, would organise their libraries in accordance with the Committee's recommendation.

With regard to compulsory legal deposit, he had already raised the question in Belgium, but he had found himself faced with a preliminary difficulty: the actual fact of compulsory legal deposit amounted to expropriation and might prove to be a fairly heavy burden when it was applied in the case of art publications, for example. No practical penalty could be imposed in the event of default.

M. COVILLE said that the French scheme provided for penalties (seizure of non-deposited works, fines). Further, far from constituting a burden, it was regarded as being of service both to authors and publishers.

M. DESTRÉE hoped that, in addition to the information office, libraries would possess a photographic studio and, above all, a studio for microphotography. Microphotography would enable exchanges of reproductions of books reduced to the size of a postage stamp to be easily made.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Coville for his interesting statement.

(M. Coville withdrew.)

110. PROPOSAL OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE ON BIBLIOGRAPHY REGARDING THE ENQUIRY INTO LIBRARIES.

The Committee adopted the following proposal of the Sub-Committee:

“The Committee considers that, in order to carry out its previous resolution concerning the co-ordination of libraries, it is desirable at first to proceed to a thorough examination into the organisation of the great libraries and the connection existing between the libraries of the great towns and in particular in regard to the facilities of all kinds offered to foreign workers.”

The experts entrusted by the Committee with the duty of carrying out an enquiry into the situation of intellectual work in the different countries were invited to give special attention to the question of the libraries.

EIGHTH MEETING

held on Saturday, December 8th, 1923, at 3 p.m

Present : The persons present at the previous meeting.

111. PROPOSALS OF THE SPANISH GOVERNMENT.

The SECRETARY read the resolution on these proposals adopted by the Assembly on September 27th, 1923 :

“The Assembly,

“Having noted the Spanish Government’s proposals concerning the equivalent recognition in all States of certain secondary educational diplomas, the creation of an International University, and the foundation of a higher educational establishment in each of the countries Members of the League of Nations, whose diplomas shall be valid in all countries Members of the League ;

“Having duly appreciated the importance of these proposals, and without prejudice to the main issue involved ;

“Decides to request the Council to refer these proposals to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for consideration, in order that the Committee may draw up a report on the subject to be submitted to the Fifth Assembly.”

M. DE TORRES-QUEVEDO gave an account of the Spanish Government’s proposals and summarised the report presented to the Assembly by M. de Palacios (Documents A. 34. 1923. XII and A. 96. (1) 1923. XII).

In view of the complexity of these questions, it appeared desirable for the Committee to decide to continue its examination.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that the Sub-Committee, when it had considered this scheme, had noted that these three questions were entirely distinct and that the first of them was allied to that of the equivalence of diplomas, which it was at the moment engaged in examining.

The Sub-Committee had thought that on questions 2 and 3 it had not yet received all the necessary information and that the Committee should ask the Spanish Government to request those persons which it judged best qualified to furnish it with the necessary information concerning the scope of these proposals and the practical means of putting them into execution.

M. DE TORRES-QUEVEDO was of the same opinion. He would himself endeavour to obtain information, but thought that the Secretariat should also apply to the “Junta para Ampliación de Estudios”.

The CHAIRMAN, in reply to a question by Mr. BANNERJEA, said that Mr. Bannerjea’s proposal, as well as the proposals put forward at Brussels regarding the creation of an International University, was to be examined at the same time as the Spanish proposal.

Mr. BANNERJEA said that he had prepared a detailed plan which he desired to communicate to the Secretariat with a request that it would forward it to the members of the Committee.

M. LORENTZ thought that the Committee should begin with a practical step which would only involve a limited expenditure and that it might be preferable not to establish an artificial creation.

M. LAFONTAINE referred to the experiment made in Brussels in 1920-21-22.

Mlle. BONNEVIE thought that the proposals submitted by the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations should include the necessary budgetary estimates and should mention the source from which the requisite sums might be obtained.

112. POSSIBLE CHANGES IN THE METHOD OF APPOINTING MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE AND OF ENLARGING THE NUMBER.

The SECRETARY read the following resolution adopted by the Assembly on September 27th, 1923.

“The Assembly,

“Considering it desirable to increase the authority of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation by enlarging it so that it represents not only the various intellectual methods but also the various national cultures ;

“Having noted with satisfaction the intention expressed by the Council at its meeting of April 23rd, 1923, of adding to the Committee on the occasion of the next vacancy a professor of the University of Vienna as representative of the Germanic culture ;

“Having noted also the legitimate demands expressed by the delegates of Roumania, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes and Czechoslovakia, by the Spanish-speaking delegates of America, by the Asiatic delegates and by the delegates of Ireland and of the Finno-Ugrian nations ;

“Requests the Council to consider the possibility of increasing the number of members on the Committee, introducing at the same time a system of rotation to be determined.”

The Council would examine the question during its next session and would probably refer it to the Committee.

The CHAIRMAN thought an exchange of views on the question would be of use before the Council met.

The Assembly's resolution implied a two-fold innovation. It involved an increase in the number of the members on the Committee and the substitution of another method for that hitherto employed. According to the old method, members of the Committee did not act as delegates of their countries.

M. DE REYNOLD reminded the Committee of the discussions which had taken place in the Fifth Committee of the Assembly, in which the delegates of countries not represented on the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation had taken part. In his opinion the recommendation which the Committee might make ought to lay emphasis on the following points: The authority of the Committee depended on its work and not on the number of its members. It was not nations which were represented on the Committee but scientific branches of thought and the main systems of culture. An increase at some future date of the number of the members would also necessitate an increase in the credits allotted to the Committee.

M. ZEREGA-FOMBONA regretted the absence of M. de Castro and stated that Latin-America was proud to be represented by a Brazilian savant as eminent as the Dean of the Faculty of Medicine of Rio de Janeiro. In the request which has been made at Geneva by the delegates of Spanish-America to obtain a more direct representation of all these countries in the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, two parts must be distinguished — first, the principle, and, secondly, the practical view. As far as the principle is concerned, this Committee is, of all the Committees created by the League of Nations, the one which has raised the greatest and most lively interest in Spanish-America and the most far-reaching hopes. As has been recalled, the co-operation and the assistance of the delegates of Spanish-America have been very useful in the discussions at Geneva for the organisation and even for the material existence of the Committee. From the practical point of view, it is perhaps dangerous if one wants to do useful work, as this Committee wishes to do, not to establish more direct communication with the intellectual life of 17 countries, which have 40 universities, many academies, learned societies, etc. He asked that the request of the delegates from Spanish-America should be examined with great attention in order to increase the efficiency of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Mr. PATON agreed with M. de Reynold's suggestions. He feared any large increase in the numbers of the Committee as well as the introduction of a system of rotation. The composition of the Committee at the moment, with the addition at some future date of a representative of Germanic culture to which the resolution of the Assembly referred, seemed to him adequately to correspond to the principal types of culture and to the various intellectual needs.

He desired that no revolutionary change should be made either in the composition or working of the Committee.

Dr. NITOBÉ said that Prof. Gilbert Murray had given to the Fifth Committee of the Assembly all possible information on the points by which the composition of the Committee had been determined.

He desired to point out further, regarding the allusion to " Asiatic delegates " in the resolution, that the Japanese delegate had stated that he was satisfied with the present composition of the Committee.

M. LORENTZ thought it preferable that the number of members should not be too high.

Perhaps without having recourse to a system of rotation by nations, the period of time during which a member should sit upon the Committee should be limited to ten years for ordinary members and twenty years for the Chairman.

Mlle. BONNEVIE laid emphasis on the following points: When the Committee had been appointed, the Council had expressly laid down that the Committee should not comprise more than twelve members. For the proper working of the Committee it was important that it should not comprise too large a number of members. It could also, in case of need, have recourse to the assistance of experts.

Further, the introduction of a system of rotation raised the question of the permanence of the Committee. If the Committee were to become a permanent one, it would be necessary for it to draw up internal rules of procedure. If the Committee were temporary, it had work to accomplish and it should be left in peace to carry out this work without being disturbed.

M. LAFONTAINE thought it was necessary to insist on the fact that the Committee represented various branches of science. By reason of the importance of its work, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation deserved to be a permanent body, in the same way as the output of the human intellect was permanent.

Mr. PATON also thought it necessary to mention the financial considerations which would arise should the numbers of the Committee be increased.

Mlle. BONNEVIE thought it would be of use, in addition to the recommendation which might be adopted by the Committee, if the Chairman were personally to approach the members of the Council and lay before them the Committee's views on the question.

Mr. LELAND stated that it was difficult for him to say what the opinion of Dr. Millikan would be on this point. He was nevertheless obliged to state that, as a result of any radical

change in the Committee or of its transformation into a kind of international congress, the question of the collaboration of America would appear in a totally different light. He desired to make full reservation regarding the liberty of Professor Millikan to take a decision and also regarding the question whether American participation in the work of the Committee would be continued or not.

The CHAIRMAN, in reply to Mlle. Bonnevie, stated that he was quite ready to agree with the Committee's opinion regarding his personal intervention, but he thought it also necessary that the Committee should make a recommendation on this important question.

After discussion of the text proposed by M. DE REYNOLD and drawn up with the assistance of M. LUCHAIRE, amended by Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA and the CHAIRMAN, the following recommendation was adopted :

" The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation makes the following recommendation regarding the first resolution adopted by the Assembly at its meeting on September 27th :

" (1) It is desirable, as is indicated in the Assembly's resolution, that the Committee should comprise, as far as possible, representatives of the principal branches of intellectual activity and at the same time representatives not only of nationalities but of the principal groups of culture.

" (2) The system of rotation does not appear to be compatible with the method of appointment originally adopted, a method with which the Committee is entirely satisfied from the point of view of its work.

" (3) The proposal to enlarge the Committee might frequently provoke keen rivalry, and this should be avoided. The smallness of the financial resources of the Committee must also be taken into consideration. In these circumstances, the Committee is of opinion that the appointment of several new correspondents would be the best means of satisfying such legitimate desires as have or may be expressed."

113. PROPOSALS OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE ON INTER-UNIVERSITY RELATIONS.

The SECRETARY summarised the work of the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations, which was in session on December 3rd and 4th¹, and presented the resolution of the Sub-Committee on the creation of an international office which was adopted in the following form :

" 1. The Committee provisionally entrusts the scientific and technical direction of the International University Information Office to a Directing Board composed of M. de Reynold, Chairman, Mr. Coleman, Director of the American Universities Union in Europe, M. de Halecki and M. Luchaire.

" Dr. Nitobé is requested to take part in the sessions of this Directing Board as representing the Secretary-General of the League of Nations. The Secretary to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will act as Secretary to the Directing Board.

" (2) The Directing Board shall direct the activity of the Office in conformity with the programme established by the Committee. It shall, in particular, approve all circular letters and all official and important communications issued by the Office, as well as the text of each number of the bulletin before it is printed.

" (3) The Directing Board shall work in general by means of correspondence. It shall meet during the session of the University Sub-Committee. Extraordinary meetings may take place if the Chairman or two members of the Directing Board think necessary and if there are sufficient funds in the budget of the Office.

" 4. The Committee expresses the hope that at times when the work of the Office is particularly large one member of the Directing Board or one of the experts of the Committee may be able to work permanently at the seat of the Office. The Committee thinks that the necessary funds for this purpose could be taken from the budget of the Office and that the appointment of a stenographer as secretary could be postponed.

" 5. The Directing Board shall present each year a report on the activity of the Office to the plenary Committee. This report shall be annexed to the general report to the Council and to the Assembly.

" 6. The Committee invites the Directing Board to begin its work by drawing up draft rules of procedure for the Office in collaboration with the directors of the various National University Offices. These rules of procedure shall assume final form when approved by the full Committee."

The Committee adopted the other resolutions proposed by the Sub-Committee as follows :

" I. The Inter-University Sub-Committee is of opinion that the moment has come to carry out the following resolution, approved by the full Committee and ratified by the Assembly and by the Council :

¹ A summary of the minutes of this session will be published in the first number of the *Bulletin of the International University Information Office*.

“ ‘The Committee proposes that the universities of countries economically ruined should enter into relation with universities of countries which are more favourably placed ; the former universities would forward to the latter universities the names of students who, having regard to their intellectual qualifications, were the most meritorious, and the latter universities would agree to accept these students and would afford them all requisite facilities, particularly in the form of grants and scholarships, to enable them to attend these universities for the purpose of continuing their studies. Such an arrangement might be drawn up conjointly with those National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation which have already been set up, or which may be set up in the future, in various countries, and also with the great international students’ associations.’

“ It consequently proposes that the full committee should address an enquiry to Governments (ministries of education) and higher schools, in order to ascertain in what measure they would be prepared to place scholarships and grants at the disposal of the most deserving students of countries with a depreciated exchange.

“ Similar requests, according to the wishes expressed by the International Confederation of Students, will be made to the same Governments regarding Custom and transport facilities.

“ Further, the Sub-Committee proposes that the full committee should request Governments and higher educational establishments of countries with a depreciated exchange to draw up a small list of students specially qualified to be admitted to the benefits of scholarships and grants in foreign countries. These lists should be accompanied with all the necessary certificates. The Sub-Committee is of opinion that the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation are specially qualified to act as intermediary. Account shall be taken of the recommendations made by the various national unions of students. Information thus obtained and the proposals made by the various parties shall be published immediately in the Bulletin of the International University Information Office.

“ The Inter-University Sub-Committee has noted with great interest the results obtained in the field of intellectual collaboration by means of international associations of students, particularly by the European Student Relief of the World’s Student Christian Federation. It requests the National Committees to get into touch with that organisation in regard to all matters pertaining to student relief. It notes with satisfaction that other international federations of students have been associated in this work.

“ The Sub-Committee further draw the attention of the full committee and of the National Committees to the international fellowships distributed by the International Federation of University Women, with which it will be necessary to remain in regular contact.

“ II. The Sub-Committee thinks it desirable that each student should possess a livret either of a national or of an international character, in which the administration of each university shall be required to insert such information as may prove useful regarding the course of studies carried out by the student in the universities of his own country or in foreign universities.

“ III. The Sub-Committee, after having heard the statements of the International Associations of Students in favour of the establishment of an International University Information Office under the auspices of the League of Nations, instructs the special committee appointed to govern this office to enter into relations with the representatives of those associations so that, in drawing up the rules of procedure of this office, a permanent contact may be ensured with the International Students Associations, and particularly with the Central Office of the International Confederation of Students.

“ IV. The Sub-Committee is of opinion that it is most desirable that a close collaboration should be established between the associations of students and the organisations for informing, receiving or placing students in universities created under the direction of States, universities or patronage committees. It recommends that the means of establishing this collaboration should be examined in each country, account being taken of existing institutions.

“ V. The Sub-Committee has noted with the greatest interest a scheme regarding the manufacture and distribution of educational films ; this scheme, drawn up by the Swiss Federation of Students, has been transmitted to the International Confederation of Students. The Sub-Committee will follow with sympathy the drafting and execution of this scheme, and declares itself ready to give its support should the necessity arise.

“ VI. The Sub-Committee, in view of the usefulness of students’ organisations, particularly for travelling students, recommends States, or the qualified institutions, to support financially these organisations in as large a measure as possible.”

After a discussion, in which Mme. CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA, Mr. PATON, M. LUCHAIRE, and the CHAIRMAN took part, the resolution referring to the question of *numerus clausus* was adopted in the following form :

“ The Committee, having been informed by the Jewish delegations of a protest concerning the *numerus clausus*, is obliged to state that this question is not within its competence. The problem of the regime of minorities, and consequently that of the *numerus clausus*, concerns, on the one hand, the sovereignty of nations, and accordingly their right to legislate independently in university matters, and, on the other hand, within the limits determined by the Treaties, it concerns the Council of the League of Nations.

“ The Committee considers, further, that university life, which is a manifestation of the highest intellectual interests of mankind, ought to be carried on everywhere with entire regularity and that the greatest efforts should be made on every side to prevent it from being disturbed. It is finally of opinion that it is desirable that, as far as the social, economic and political conditions of each nation permit, any person intellectually capable of benefiting from higher education should have free access to the establishments in which that education is provided. ”

M. DE TORRES-QUEVEDO, on behalf of his colleagues, desired to express to the Chairman the thanks of the Committee for the courtesy, impartiality and authority with which he had directed its work.

The CHAIRMAN was happy to note that during the present session the Committee had begun work of a practical nature. He thanked M. de Torres-Quevedo and his other colleagues for their help and for the spirit of co-operation which they had shown, which tended increasingly to unite the members of the Committee.

He declared the session to be at an end.

Annex 1.

**ORGANISATION OF NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION:
DRAFT OF GENERAL RULES.**

Note by the Secretariat of the International Committee.

The following text is not intended in any way to constitute a draft statute or draft regulations. On the contrary, it lays down (in Section 2) that the National Committees are to be fully autonomous and that they will be free to draw up their own rules of procedure. It has nevertheless been thought desirable that the representatives of existing National Committees should agree on certain guiding principles with a view to facilitating the co-ordination of their work and the constitution of new committees in countries in which such committees have not yet been set up.

The present draft may serve as a basis for discussion on these lines.

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* *

1. The aims of the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation shall be as follows :

(a) To act as intermediaries between the intellectual organisations in their respective countries and the International Committee appointed by the Council of the League of Nations ;

(b) To assist in the enquiry on the conditions of intellectual life undertaken by this Committee ;

(c) To transmit to the Secretariat of the International Committee, or directly to the other National Committees concerned, the more urgent requests of intellectual institutions and workers in their respective countries, especially as regards books and instruments, travelling facilities and inter-university exchanges ;

(d) To comply as far as possible with requests of the same nature which they may receive through the Secretariat of the International Committee or directly from the other National Committees.

2. The National Committees shall themselves determine their relations with their Governments and their rules of procedure and composition. It is desirable that each National Committee should include representatives of the following bodies :

(a) Institutions or associations which have already been created for the encouragement of intellectual co-operation at home or with foreign countries ;

(b) The universities : either particular universities or national inter-university organisations ;

(c) The national libraries, bibliographical institutes and organisations for the exchange of publications ;

(d) The principal academies or learned societies ;

(e) The national federations of intellectual workers.

3. Each National Committee shall appoint one of its members to take charge of correspondence with the Secretariat of the International Committee and with the other National Committees. The name and address of this member, together with full details in regard to the composition and working of the National Committee, and all communications or proposals which the latter may desire to make, shall be sent to the Secretariat of the International Committee, which will publish them in the *Bulletin of the International University Information Office*.

Annex 2.

**SUGGESTIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION OF NATIONAL COMMITTEES
ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.**

1. The objects of the National Committees for Intellectual Co-operation are as follows :

(a) To serve as intermediaries between the organisations of intellectual life in their respective countries and the International Committee appointed by the Council of the League of Nations ;

(b) To collaborate in the enquiries set on foot by this Committee into the conditions of intellectual life ;

(c) To forward to the Secretariat of the International Committee, or directly to the other National Committees concerned, the most urgent of the requests of the institutions and intellectual workers in their respective countries, especially requests for books and instruments, facilities for travelling and inter-university exchanges ;

(d) To satisfy as far as possible requests of the same kind which may be made to them through the intermediary of the Secretariat of the International Committee or directly by the other National Committees.

2. The National Committees will themselves determine their relations with their Governments, as well as their rules of procedure and their composition. They shall constitute themselves in whatever manner they desire in accordance with local conditions and possibilities. In countries where several organisations working in the field of intellectual co-operation exist, they are requested to unite if possible to form one committee and in any case they should reach an agreement among themselves to appoint a common delegate to represent them in their relations with the International Committee. It is desirable that each National Committee should include representatives :

(a) Of institutions or associations established previously for the encouragement of intellectual co-operation at home or in foreign countries ;

(b) Of organisations whose object is to present different branches of thought in their various forms (academies, learned, literary and artistic societies, etc.) ;

(c) Of the university world, either of particular universities or of national inter-university organisations ;

(d) Of national libraries, bibliographical institutes and offices for the exchange of publications ;

(e) Of professional groups or national federations of intellectual workers.

3. Each National Committee shall entrust one of its members with the duty of corresponding with the Secretariat of the Intellectual Committee and with other National Committees. The names and addresses of these members, all information on the composition and work of the National Committees, as well as the communications and proposals which they may desire to make should be sent to the Secretariat of the International Committee, which will publish them in the *Bulletin of the International Office for University Information*.

Annex 3.

ORGANISATION OF INTERNATIONAL INTELLECTUAL ASSISTANCE : REPORT BY THE SECRETARIAT.

The first results obtained by the Committee in the sphere of intellectual assistance have been described in a preliminary report drawn up by the Secretariat, and published as a second annex to the Minutes of the Second Session of the Committee.

Since the drafting of that report, more than thirty volumes of Spanish geological publications have been obtained for the School of Mining and Forestry at Sopron (Hungary) by the "Junta para ampliación de Estudios", and regular exchanges of scientific publications have been established between the British Government's Department of Scientific and Industrial Research and several National Committees, among which may be mentioned those of Esthonia, Austria and Greece. Thanks to the steps taken by Professor Gilbert Murray, an important article by an Austrian scholar was published in an English review, and with the help of the Institute of International Education of New York, a professor of the University of Lemberg (Poland) will be given the opportunity of going to the United States to carry on chemical research work.

These few instances, which, though encouraging, are isolated, serve to illustrate the necessity for a more systematic organisation for international assistance. The Committee decided to adopt the first two conclusions of the preliminary report, which sketch the outlines of this organisation. It will now have to consider the questions raised in the third and fourth conclusions, dealing respectively with the exchange of publications and with the exchange of professors and students, as well as journeys of all kinds for the purposes of study abroad. These two questions will be discussed separately in the two parts of the present report. The first part, dealing with the exchange of publications, will also contain notes on the exchange of material and the publication of scientific works, for which, under present conditions, no publishers can be found.

All the considerations which will be set forth below are based upon the system of National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation, approved by the Council and the Assembly. It should, however, be pointed out that in certain special cases it would be difficult and, indeed, unnecessary to constitute a National Committee on the same lines as the others, and that a single adequately qualified institution would suffice as an intermediary. Such, for instance, is the case in Albania, where the work can be done by the Library of Tirana (see Minutes of the Second Session, page 51), the Free City of Danzig, where the library of the Polytechnic High School will act as the International Committee's agent, and, lastly, in the case of Ukrainian emigrants — refugees from the Ukrainian Soviet Republic, whose Committee, formed in Czechoslovakia, has addressed an appeal to the International Committee for text-books for the higher educational institutions which they have established abroad.

I.

When enquiring into the best means of obtaining books and periodicals for countries which are in need of them, we must not neglect the subsidiary question as to how publications, when obtained, can most quickly and economically be despatched to their destination. This problem is, however, connected with the more general question contained in the Conventions of 1886 concerning the international exchange of publications, which is being studied by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography. It is, therefore, unnecessary to enter into details here, and it will suffice to emphasise the fact that direct exchanges between learned bodies have now become extremely costly and that it would be difficult to effect the transport of larger consignments through the diplomatic couriers of the States concerned. The working of the International Exchange Service, established by the Conventions of 1886, is, therefore, of primary importance for the organisation of intellectual assistance, more especially as the Assembly agrees with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in thinking that these Conventions ought to be revised in the near future, with a view of widening their scope so as to include the exchange of unofficial scientific publications. Pending this revision, the International Exchange Services might be used to a large extent for intellectual assistance, since even the majority of those States which did not adhere to the Conventions of 1886 have established unofficial exchange services.

When considering the principal question dealt with in this part of the report, it will be convenient to divide into three chronological groups the publications the exchange of which it is desired to encourage, or which it might be desirable to present as a gift to countries whose need is most urgent. The first group would include publications which appeared before 1914; the second, war and post-war productions for the ten years 1914-1923; and the third, publications appearing after January 1st, 1924.

1. In view of the difficulties presented by the problem as a whole, it will be possible only in quite exceptional cases to deal with publications which appeared before 1914. Indeed, requests for such publications should only be made by scientific institutions of recent date which did not exist before the war and which have been unable to find any scientific library to serve as a basis for their collections, or by institutions whose libraries were destroyed during the war or by catastrophes such as the earthquake in Japan.

In any case, requests for pre-war publications should be confined to really essential books and periodicals which have lost none of their scientific value; such requests should therefore be checked most carefully by the National Committees responsible for their transmission. Among the bodies to which applications for such books or periodicals may be addressed should be included not only the National Committees of the countries in which the works in question were published, but also certain institutions which are in possession of extensive reserves of books published at various dates and places, and which are willing to put them at the disposal of scientific institutions which cannot afford to buy them. "The Universities Library for Central Europe" in London and the "American Library" in Paris, both of which have established relations with the International Committee, may be quoted as examples.

2. It is needless to emphasise the great and urgent necessity for the international exchange of publications issued during the last ten years, especially in the case of the Central European countries, which, during the war and even after the conclusion of peace, were cut off from Western countries owing to their geographical situation and the depreciation of their exchange. Fortunately, National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation have been constituted in all these countries. Latvia also has established such an organisation under the auspices of the University of Riga.

From all these countries we receive perfectly legitimate appeals pointing to the gaps which the events of the last ten years have left in their libraries, which they are unable to fill from their own resources. An examination of their requests, however, shows that the institutions in these countries are not always fully informed as to all the really essential publications which have appeared in other countries, and they therefore experience some difficulty in selecting those which they most urgently need. Further, it seems inadvisable that learned societies or colleges should individually communicate their needs to the International Committee. The principle that all requests of this kind should be made through the National Committees of the country concerned should henceforth be strictly enforced. Each Committee should indicate the number of copies necessary when the same book is required by several institutions situated at great distances from one another.

The aim which the League of Nations has in view would more readily be attained if the National Committees would take the following suggestions into consideration :

Each Committee might, in the first instance, ask the National or Central Library in its own country if it possesses the necessary bibliographical documentation showing what publications have appeared in other countries during the last ten years. Any deficiencies discovered by this means ought to be remedied first of all, and there is reason to hope that the required bibliographies would immediately be forwarded by the countries in which they were published. As soon as the Central Library, when consulted, had obtained adequate information from the bibliographical point of view, it could select those publications which it particularly needed. The National Committee would then submit this list to the other libraries and similar institutions in the country, asking them to add the publications which they considered indispensable and to return the list to the National Committee within a prescribed period. All the institutions consulted, including the National Library, would at the same time be requested to state what publications they could offer in exchange. Each National Committee would thus be in possession of a complete file concerning the exchanges of publications which have appeared between 1914 and 1923 and are of particular interest to its own country. The whole file would be communicated to the Secretariat of the International Committee, but the National Committee concerned would do well itself to classify the desired publications according to their country of origin, in order that the partial lists may be transmitted without loss of time either directly or through Geneva to the National Committees of those countries.

Countries which have published little since the crisis of the last few years might perhaps offer in exchange any duplicates contained in their libraries. We ought therefore to welcome the initiative taken by the Austrian National Committee in preparing catalogues of duplicates to be found in the libraries of that country.

The great countries of the West will, as a rule, have more to give than to receive in these exchanges ; but we must bear in mind that — quite apart from the ideal of international solidarity — any sacrifices they may be prepared to make may actually prove to be advantageous to themselves, for they would be carrying on intellectual propaganda in the best sense of the word and would make their libraries truly international, by allowing them to procure publications which are difficult of access from distant and less well-known countries.

The gaps in the libraries of Central European countries are particularly important and detrimental to the progress of scientific work in the case of periodicals. Requests for year-books or reviews published during the last ten years should therefore receive first consideration.

It will be a more difficult matter to obtain all the books asked for even if the National Committees to which requests of this kind are addressed decide to make a direct appeal to the authors themselves. It might therefore be well systematically to organise international loans of books which cannot be obtained in exchange or as gifts. Since the war, there has been so marked a decrease in international loans between libraries that the attention of all National Committees should be drawn to the matter. The recommendation made by the International Committee that books lent by one library to another should be free from customs duty could only be carried out if the National Committees undertook to approach their respective Governments.

3. The organisation of the exchange of future publications ought to be considered at once, in order that the state of affairs described above with reference to the publications which have appeared during the last ten years may not be prolonged indefinitely nor be repeated. A proposal made by the Greek and Lithuanian National Committees deserves full consideration. They suggest that the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should issue an appeal to scientific institutions throughout the world, requesting them to place at its disposal a certain number of copies (100 or 50) of all their publications, which would then be distributed among those libraries which find the greatest difficulty in obtaining them.

When considering what action might be taken on this proposal, the International Committee and the delegates of the National Committees might perhaps bear in mind the two following cases :

(a) When considering the best methods for a free distribution of its own publications, the League of Nations found it impossible to meet the demands of all the institutions which made requests in the various countries. It therefore decided to select one library in each country — or a very limited number of libraries — to serve as a central depot in that country for the publications of the League of Nations.

This method could be applied to the more general question with which we are now dealing, and each National Committee could appoint the library or libraries to which the scientific publications edited in the other countries and offered for international exchange should be sent. If a very rigorous selection were made, the number of copies mentioned in the Greek and Lithuanian proposals could perhaps be reduced and a smaller number of copies, which it would be easier to obtain, be made to suffice. This method would also make it possible to distribute the publications in the most equitable manner.

(b) On being invited to adhere to the Conventions of 1886 on the Exchange of Official Publications, the British Government replied that it appeared extravagant to exchange automatically *all* the publications between all countries, as many of them contained a large proportion of matter of purely national interest, and their exchange would involve a certain amount of more or less useless expenditure and labour. The British Government therefore suggested an exchange of publications selected from bibliographical lists circulated previously. This

principle could be applied not only to official publications, but also to scientific publications. It is therefore proposed, first of all, to organise as from January 1st, 1924, a very rapid exchange of all the national bibliographies between the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation ; it would then be possible to inform the different institutions issuing important publications which of these publications and how many copies of them should be placed at the disposal of the International Committee for distribution to the libraries selected as central depots by the different countries.

We need not here go into the practical details of the scheme, as the Secretariat has not yet received definite proposals from the majority of the National Committees and certain of these details will perhaps be examined by the Conference which will undertake the revision of the Conventions of 1886, with special reference to the requirements of scientific institutions.

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Many countries ask not only for publications but also for the scientific material required by their institutes and laboratories. It is much more difficult to comply with these requests than with requests for books ; they should therefore be confined to particularly urgent cases. A very serious effort will be needed on the part of the National Committees in the more favourably situated countries if results are to be obtained. As no practical experience is available, we must restrict ourselves to drawing attention to an interesting suggestion made by the Roumanian National Committee. That Committee expressed the hope that the various Governments would grant credits for this purpose at reduced rates and repayable at a distant date when the rate of exchange of the country making the application had improved. The Roumanian Academy points out that in this way the different instruments, etc., would not be supplied as gifts, but in the form of temporary loans. The Roumanian Academy considers that this suggestion could also be applied to valuable books.

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The scholars of certain countries whose exchange is low and whose publications, for linguistic reasons, do not enjoy a large circulation usually meet with great difficulties in publishing certain works which are not acceptable to the large publishing firms. They could be assisted in two ways : in the first place, the National Committees of the more favourably situated countries could arrange with the reviews of their own countries for the acceptance of articles recommended by the National Committee of another country ; and, secondly, the scheme for an international scientific review, which was submitted to the Sub-Committee on Bibliography by M. Z. Klemensiewicz, professor at the Polytechnic School at Lemberg, could be examined.

The expediency of this proposal has been questioned on the ground that a new international review might compete to an alarming extent with the scientific reviews already in existence, which are often faced with considerable difficulties themselves. This is a very real danger, but it could be eliminated if the *Bulletin* of the University Information Bureau, for example, were to publish the titles of interesting papers which cannot be published in the country of origin of their authors. If at the end of a certain period no national review has notified its intention of publishing them, they would be handed over to the editor of the international review. If the Sub-Committee on Bibliography adopts this proposal, a definite scheme on these lines could be submitted to the Fifth Assembly of the League of Nations.

II.

As regards personal exchanges, two questions arise at the outset : the question of abolishing visas or, at any rate, charges for visas in respect of journeys undertaken by intellectual workers, and the question of reducing the expense of travelling.

The National Committees could render valuable assistance, as they could obtain concessions of this kind from their Governments, either for the nationals of their own country going abroad, or for foreigners coming to work in their country.

After this preliminary remark, it will be well to consider separately exchanges of professors, exchanges of students, and exchanges or journeys of young scholars who have finished their studies but who have not yet taken up university teaching.

1. In its resolution concerning exchanges of professors, the Sub-Committee on University Relations laid down the principle that the organisation of such exchanges should be left for the present to be settled by agreements between individual countries and between individual universities, but that the information furnished by the International University Information Bureau might be utilised in order to render them more frequent.

In this direction, even more than in its work of documentation and publication, the International Bureau will have to work in close collaboration with the National University Bureaux ; in countries where such Bureaux have not yet been established, the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation could carry out their duties, at least provisionally.

The International Bureau will begin by publishing in its *Bulletin* the various proposals for exchanges — offers and requests which it receives from the national organisations, but in

the case of countries whose economic and geographical situation is particularly unfavourable, the National Committees will have to make a proportionately greater effort.

The Committees of countries in Central and Eastern Europe could, for instance, communicate to the International Bureau a complete list of all the professors in their respective countries who wish to go abroad to give courses and lectures, specifying the subjects on which they would lecture and the languages which they would employ ; the Committees might add a further list indicating either by name or by subject the foreign professors whom they wish to invite to give courses or to deliver a certain number of lectures. Of course, there is no reason why proposals of this kind in regard to exchanges with a particular country should not be communicated directly to the National Committee of that country instead of going through the International Bureau.

The National Committees of the more favourably situated countries would undertake — through their University Bureaux in cases in which such bureaux exist — to apply to their Governments or to their universities, in order that the requests which are sent to them directly or through the International Bureau may be complied with.

The Sub-Committee's resolution mentioned above foresees that the financial aspect of the problem will be particularly difficult, especially between countries with very different rates of exchange.

As this resolution points out, a professor going to a country with a higher rate of exchange would have to be compensated for any loss which he would otherwise incur in consequence of the difference in the cost of living.

2. Exchanges of students will be dealt with by a special conference with the representatives of the Students' International Organisations : they will therefore not be dealt with in this report.

In this direction also, the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation will be in a position to render valuable service by transmitting to the International Bureau lists, drawn up by the universities of their countries, of students who, having regard to their intellectual qualifications, are the most meritorious, and by helping the foreign students recommended in this way to obtain grants, scholarships and other necessary facilities.

3. The Sub-Committee on University Relations urged that young teachers who have not yet been appointed to chairs at universities should not be excluded from the exchanges, and this is particularly important in the case of countries which were isolated during the war and during the post-war period and whose younger university scholars have had no personal experience of foreign countries.

It should be added that the International Students' Associations strongly recommend the exchange of young people who have finished their studies and obtained degrees in their country of origin. It is during the years between the termination of student life and entry into the teaching profession that a period spent abroad is particularly desirable, but, at the same time, it is very difficult for these young people to earn their living without giving up disinterested study.

This category of intellectual workers, therefore, deserves to be included in the exchange organisation, and the only method of accomplishing this seems to be to give them the opportunity of temporarily occupying remunerative posts abroad where their duties would be connected with the subjects they are studying.

If they remain in their own country, these young graduates usually occupy posts in libraries, archives, museums, etc., when they do not take up secondary teaching. It is, therefore, interesting to note the suggestion made by the Austrian National Committee to the effect that special encouragement should be given to exchanges of officials of this kind.

The exchanges of National Public Health officials, which have been organised by the Health Section of the League of Nations with excellent results, furnish a highly encouraging precedent.

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It is true that the exchanges of officials carried out under the auspices of the Health Organisation of the League of Nations are only rendered possible by the considerable funds placed at the disposal of that Organisation by the Rockefeller Foundation. If the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation (or the National Committees which co-operate with it) also had greater funds at its disposal, these additional resources could be utilised not only to organise exchanges between individual countries, but to enable the less favourably situated countries to take part in international enterprises of an intellectual character, such as :

(a) International vacation courses, in which countries at a distance or with a low rate of exchange cannot take a sufficient part ;

(b) The work of the International Bibliographical Institute, which would be greatly assisted if young scholars in different countries could give their help from time to time, even for comparatively short periods ;

(c) International scientific congresses, to which many countries cannot, out of their own resources, afford to send an adequate number of delegates.

Here, too, the collaboration of the National Committees would enable selection to be made in the various countries of persons deserving assistance, with a view to their participation in international intellectual life.

Annex 4.

ORGANISATION OF INTERNATIONAL INTELLECTUAL ASSISTANCE : PROPOSAL OF THE ROUMANIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

It is essential that the general principle governing the work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in regard to mutual assistance should be made clear. This principle is the expression of the natural law of *solidarity*, which binds individual men together and is destined in the future to rule the destinies of nations. M. Léon Bourgeois, former President of the Council of the League of Nations, has very ably developed this notion of solidarity in its social aspects. The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation is broadening the scope of M. Bourgeois' conception, inasmuch as it appeals not merely to national societies and associations but also to the nations themselves which have suffered most from the war. It is therefore essential to make clear the need for a universal law of human solidarity, otherwise the individual, social and national entities would merge in a single ideal.

The members of the League of Nations Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should therefore bear in mind the general conception of the rights and obligations of individual countries, and should judge the actions of all nations in the light of that conception. A general outlook — a purely philosophical view of the world and of society — is not adequate.

Such a view may foster generous impulses, may bring about desirable reconciliations, may lead to sacrifices, may increase the scope and active value of altruism — that is to say, it may strengthen the ethical bonds which unite mankind, but it cannot hope to establish a new prescription in *international law*. The important question is whether the laws of solidarity contain the fundamental principles of a real law of mankind, and this question can only be answered by a detailed study of the practical conditions of such solidarity. In our opinion, the constitution of the League of Nations as a kind of supreme court implies the principles of such a law.

The most suitable means of establishing mutual intellectual assistance should be studied in the light of these ideas. If, by means of a convention, those Governments which are financially in the best position — and perhaps also the financiers of the world, when they become conscious of the fundamental interests of civilisation and of the lofty mission of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation — placed at the disposal of the Committee, as a temporary loan, the necessary funds for the purchase of books, instruments and reagents, we should have found the most simple and satisfactory means of averting the intellectual crisis which threatens the civilisation, whether rudimentary or highly developed, of countries which are in distress as a result of the disastrous effects of the war. This proposal does not, of course, preclude individual donations, but as these are usually made for specified purposes, they cannot be regarded as a radical cure for the present crisis in intellectual life.

Annex 5.

ORGANISATION OF INTERNATIONAL INTELLECTUAL ASSISTANCE : PROPOSALS OF THE CZECHOSLOVAK NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

The Czechoslovak Committee on Intellectual Co-operation has the honour to present for discussion the following proposals in regard to the organisation of international intellectual co-operation by the exchange of books and instruments.

1. In view of the importance for intellectual workers of being able to borrow books, manuscripts and documents from foreign libraries and collections for their scientific researches, it is desirable that the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should arrange for :

(a) The establishment of a central office to serve as an intermediary for the borrowing of books. Men of science wishing to borrow a book or work would obtain in this office prompt and certain information as to where the required work was to be found, as well as particulars of the conditions under which it might be borrowed with the assistance of the office.

(b) The elaboration of a scheme which would enable an intellectual worker to borrow manuscripts and documents from foreign libraries.

2. As research in the field of the exact and applied sciences is becoming more and more difficult and costly, specialisation is necessary in the research laboratories. The Czechoslovak Committee, therefore, invites the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation :

(a) To draw up a list of all the laboratories which at present specialise in a given field of research ;

(b) To support and to promote the specialisation of laboratories in new fields of research.

3. In view of the importance for foreign workers to obtain photographs of certain historical manuscripts and documents, the Czechoslovak Committee believes that the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might be able to render useful service to the cause of intellectual work by taking up the question of the establishment of photographic studios attached to large libraries or collections of archives.

Annex 6.

ORGANISATION OF INTERNATIONAL INTELLECTUAL ASSISTANCE : PROPOSALS SUBMITTED BY THE LITHUANIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

1. It is desirable that the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should send a Rapporteur of neutral nationality to the various countries where the conditions of intellectual work are particularly unfavourable, and should make an appeal to scientific institutions all over the world on behalf of the universities of such countries.

2. It is desirable that the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should appeal to scientific institutions all over the world to place fifty copies of each of their publications at the disposal of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for the latter to distribute in the different countries among the libraries of the universities which require them most and are least able to afford them.

3. It is desirable that the number of members on the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation be increased in order that a larger number of countries and every branch of science may be represented on it.

(Signed) Dr. P. BUČYS,
*Chairman of the Lithuanian National Committee
on Intellectual Co-operation,
Pro-Rector and Professor at the University of Kovno.*

(Signed) ELEMÉR BALOGH,
*Doctor of Law,
General Secretary of the Lithuanian National Committee
on Intellectual Co-operation,
Professor at the Faculty of Law in the University of Kovno.*

Annex 7.

ORGANISATION OF INTERNATIONAL INTELLECTUAL ASSISTANCE : PROPOSALS OF THE GREEK NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

1. It is essential that funds should be placed at the disposal of the International Committee and of the National Committees for the purpose of assisting the exchange and purchase of publications and material for intellectual work and the exchange of professors and students.

2. It is very desirable to establish an international law, valid in all countries which are Members of the League of Nations, *obliging all authors*, institutions and learned societies to send to their respective National Committee, free of charge or for a very moderate price, a number of copies (say 100) of all their publications and other intellectual material.

The National Committees would, in their turn, be bound to forward all these copies to the International Committee.

Our Committee believes that no objection will be raised to the adoption of a law on these lines, seeing that everyone will benefit from such an international obligation.

In our country a local law of this kind exists, according to which two copies of every Greek publication must be sent to the National Library and to the library of the Chamber of Deputies.

Our Committee believes that if representations were made by the League of Nations to the Governments of the various countries the desired object could be achieved.

It may be pointed out that, at the time when the Greeks obtained their independence during the reign of Charles X of France), the French Government required French authors to send copies of their works to our poverty-stricken country.

3. It is essential that the Governments of the States Members of the League of Nations should be asked to give their moral and financial support to the work of the respective National Committees.

4. Our National Committee is of opinion that the establishment of an *International University* would greatly help towards the organisation of mutual intellectual assistance and, in particular, towards the exchange of professors and students, intellectual co-operation and the work of international bibliography. Our Committee cannot too strongly recommend the establishment of an International University, which it regards as the best means of organising mutual intellectual assistance.

We have the honour to make the following proposals :

(a) The students of the International University should be among the best (the élite) of those possessing the higher degrees of the national universities.

(b) In the International University there should only be advanced research courses extending over one half-year and dealing with subjects which are not included in the degree examinations in the national universities. The professors should be specialists appointed by the League of Nations for the purpose of giving such advanced courses. They should only be appointed for one half-year.

(c) There might also be permanent professors chosen from among distinguished members of the great Academies of the world who have retired from university work in their own countries.

(d) The professors of the International University should receive the full salary paid to them in their own country, and in addition a supplement granted by the League of Nations.

(e) Intellectual co-operation between specialists belonging to the same branch of learning should be effected in the International University by organising Congresses of specialists.

(f) The great general International Congresses should be organised by the International University on the initiative of the League of Nations.

(g) Our Committee is aware of the difficulty of choosing the seat of the International University, but considers that it ought to be in a neutral country in which the national language is not the only language in use.

(h) Certain courses of the International University might, by reason of their nature, be given in a national university. In this case the professors who give the lectures should be regarded, during the term in question, as professors of the International University and should receive the League of Nations supplement in addition to their national salary.

A professor of a national university who is called upon to give an International University course of lectures away from his home university should be replaced by a colleague to whom the League of Nations would have to make a supplementary allowance.

We may mention that our own University Law allows professors to be absent abroad for a period of one term for intellectual purposes.

Courses which are given in a national university should be organised and inspected by the National Committees of the country in which that university is situated.

(i) The International University should have the right to organise degree courses by correspondence for students in all the countries of the world which do not possess a national university and for persons who cannot leave their own country.

This system would help to lessen nationalist feeling in intellectual work. We may point out that, generally speaking, the work of the International University will be a powerful factor in moderating that nationalist feeling in the sphere of intellectual work which has been noticeable in various countries, especially during and after the world war.

5. It should be the duty of the members of the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation to invite and give effect in their own countries to requests or exchanges and they should make propaganda for this purpose. We believe that the success of any system of mutual intellectual assistance depends very much on the work of the members of the National Committees, and that the latter ought to have wide powers.

6. The National Committees should be required to make all the necessary arrangements for the hospitable reception of the intellectual workers who come to their country, under the auspices of the League of Nations, in order to carry on studies for which there are special facilities. They should be required to grant them all possible moral and financial assistance.

7. A local bureau belonging to the League of Nations should be established in connection with the National Committees, and the latter should send regularly to the Central Office full information with regard to the universities of their own country (curricula, changes in the teaching staff, lectures and courses, number of students in each faculty and section, special qualifications and intellectual requirements of the professors, nature of degrees granted, subjects of doctoral theses, administrative offices).

8. Our National Committee proposes that the League of Nations should request the Governments of all countries to abolish all taxes imposed upon the export of books and other material for intellectual work. At the present time, the export of intellectual material from

Germany and Austria is so heavily taxed that it is extremely difficult for countries whose financial resources are limited to procure it.

9. The International University should organise degree examinations on international lines, and should grant *diplomas or degrees valid in all countries*. These examinations should be written examinations and should be held simultaneously in all countries Members of the League ; the papers, which would be identical in all countries, would be set by the permanent professors of the International University. The National Committees of each country would supervise the examination.

The method which we propose is already applied by France so as to enable persons of French nationality resident in the East to acquire the *baccalauréal*.

Recognition of the degrees of the International University should be compulsory for all countries Members of the League.

On behalf of the Greek National Committee :

(Signed) GEORGES J. REMOUNDOS,
*Professor of the National University and of the
National Polytechnical School at Athens.*

Athens, November 5th, 1923.

Annex 8.

ORGANISATION OF INTERNATIONAL INTELLECTUAL ASSISTANCE : PROPOSAL OF THE POLISH NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

The question of the exchange of publications has never been settled so as to ensure fully the intellectual co-operation of the various nations. Even relatively rich countries have not always placed at the disposal of students the necessary materials for their work, in the shape of books or periodicals. Conditions in that respect left much to be desired before the war and have now become simply disastrous. The common effort of all nations that take an interest in the development of world civilisation will be necessary to remedy this situation. The goodwill of private individuals and the generosity of some wealthy associations would not be sufficient for that purpose. It is necessary to enlist the assistance of all the more important State associations, and the action of the League of Nations can be particularly useful in order to solve this difficult problem.

The Polish Committee of Intellectual Co-operation begs to submit the following scheme with a view to regulating the international exchanges of scientific publications.

A convention concerning these exchanges should be drawn up.

Each country adhering to that convention should undertake to forward through the exchange office all its scientific publications, including periodicals, to each of the States signatory of the aforesaid convention.

Each of the contracting States should select a library which should be used as a centralising office and to which all exchange publications should be sent. Each Government will be free to collect as seems best the publications required for exchange, though it would seem most desirable to ask the publishers to provide the State with a number of copies equal to the number of the States signatory of the convention.

The League of Nations could propose to two or several neighbouring States to adhere jointly to the convention when States with a small territory or a limited number of universities are concerned. In such cases these neighbouring States should be considered as forming one State.

The number of copies to be exchanged by each signatory State would be provisionally fixed at 20.

This number could be increased only by the assent of the majority of the signatory States.

This scheme, which we are submitting here only in its main lines, seems to us very simple and inexpensive. It does not require the creation of any new organisation and it does not lay any burden on the State. The clause requiring the publishers to provide 20 copies would not be very heavy either, and would not assume the character of a free gift, for this distribution of works through the whole world might rather be considered as profitable publicity for the publishers, not to mention the benefit to be drawn from it by the author, whose scientific discoveries will thus increase the patrimony of universal science.

On the other hand, the students of each of the contracting States will be enabled to get acquainted in their own country with current scientific literature, and the closer all intellectual workers are brought together the easier their researches will become.

The above-mentioned scheme seems also equitable. Each State will give what it is in a position to give. The richer States, which have reached a high degree of civilisation, will give more, and the poorer States will give less. The obligations of the former are greater than those of the latter, and their historical role confers more obligations upon them. Thus the equilibrium of reciprocal rights and duties will be maintained, and a satisfactory working of intellectual co-operation will be ensured.

We must add that such a system of international exchanges of publications would in no way prevent additional exchanges of publications between the various scientific institutions, which would maintain the relations previously established ; but it must be said that these latter exchanges, owing to their very nature, can only be fragmentary and restricted. They can in no way replace a system of international exchanges.

(Signed) CH. LUTOSTANSKI,
Chairman of the Mianowski Foundation.

Annex 9.

EXCHANGE OF ZOOLOGICAL, BOTANICAL AND GEOLOGICAL SPECIMENS : PROPOSAL OF THE LITHUANIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

In connection with the exchange of publications and scientific instruments, the Lithuanian Committee proposes to organise also the exchange of other scientific objects — in particular, the exchange of zoological, botanical and geological specimens.

The various public educational establishments and learned organisations of the various countries can easily procure for the pursuit of the above sciences specimens which might be of use to the establishments and organisations of another country ; these specimens would include objects of value for the purpose of study, or material for research and scientific work. This proposal is all the more important as botanical and geological specimens have a different specific character according to latitude and longitude. Moreover, the collection of such specimens would not necessitate any large expenditure, and it would be easy to organise their exchange.

The Lithuanian University is ready to begin work immediately in accordance with this scheme.

Annex 10.

COMPULSORY EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS : PROPOSAL OF THE GREEK NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

I propose to complete and to render more precise the proposal of the Greek Committee for the compulsory exchange of publications by dealing with the question of the number of copies which the various institutions and learned societies should exchange.

Our proposal, which was read yesterday by the Secretary-General, suggests that it is necessary to adopt a fixed number — for example, a hundred copies.

I would observe, in order to complete this proposal, that this number should not be fixed, but that it should be universally proportionate to the size of the publications. It would not be just for the number to be the same for one typographical sheet and for a book of 30 sheets. I therefore propose to adopt as a basis for compulsory exchange the following scale :

For a publication of 1 typographical sheet there should be 100 copies for compulsory exchange.

For any other publication having X typographical sheets, there should be a compulsory exchange of $100 : X$ copies.

If the quotient $100 : X$ is not a whole number, the fraction may be struck out.

For example :

For a publication of 2 typographical sheets there would be 50 copies for compulsory distribution ;

For a publication of 3 typographical sheets there would be a compulsory distribution of 33 copies, since the fraction $1/3$ rd would be ignored ;

For a publication of 20 typographical sheets there would be 5 copies for compulsory exchange, and so forth.

In the proposal of our Committee, we suggested that the compulsory exchange should be effected at a moderate price. In order to complete and further define our proposal, it is suggested that the price for compulsory exchange should not exceed one-third of the ordinary price.

(Signed) GEORGES REMOUNDOS,
Delegate of the Greek Committee.

Annex 11.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OFFICES : PROPOSAL OF THE AUSTRIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

1. Recalling its resolution adopted at the second plenary session, the Committee invites the National Committees to take the necessary measures in order that, in countries where there are no bibliographical information offices, offices of this kind should be created and attached to the big libraries. These offices would keep in close touch with each other and render all libraries more easily accessible.

2. These offices should enjoy postal franchise for their correspondence and for the despatch of books, or should at least benefit by the inland postal tariffs on books sent abroad.

3. Recalling also the necessity of creating a central office to act as an intermediary between the national offices, the Committee expresses the opinion that this task should be carried out by the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels, and recommends that this point should be included in the agreement with the Institute to be drafted by the delegates of the Committee.

Annex 12.

ESTABLISHMENT OF A CENTRAL OFFICE FOR SCIENTIFIC PUBLICATIONS : PROPOSAL OF THE CZECHOSLOVAK NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

The fact that intellectual workers make use of scientific publications in their national languages — a fact which is well justified and extremely useful for the development of science — has the unfortunate consequence that a large proportion of the scientific work of small and even of large nations remains unknown. The circumstance that works of real importance are usually published in one of the scientific journals of world-wide importance does not generally apply to works which are aimed particularly at national culture in the widest sense of the word. In this field, collaboration between the National Committees and the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might be usefully arranged. The National Committees would be able to consider, each in its own country, the establishment of a body for a national scientific documentation, and a central office might supervise the work of these bodies. This central office would be established by the International Committee, which would collect monthly the works despatched by the national bodies and assemble them in a periodical publication of international interest. This bureau would, at the same time, act as intermediary for all kinds of work and for all sorts of needs which will arise in this particular field, such as the despatch of specimens, analytical extracts, more or less detailed, or, finally, the translation of certain parts or the whole of a particular work.

Annex 13.

EXCHANGE OF STUDENTS : RESOLUTION OF THE UNIVERSITY SUB-COMMITTEE.

The Inter-University Sub-Committee is of opinion that the moment has come to carry out the following resolution approved by the full Committee and ratified by the Assembly and by the Council :

“ The Committee proposes that the universities of countries economically ruined should enter into relation with universities of countries which are more favourably placed ; the former universities should forward to the latter universities the names of students who, having regard to their intellectual qualifications, were the most meritorious and the latter universities would agree to accept these students and would afford them all requisite facilities, particularly in the form of grants and scholarships, to enable them to attend these universities for the purpose of continuing their studies. Such an arrangement might be drawn up conjointly with those National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation which have already been set up, or which may be set up in the future, in various countries, and also with the great international students' associations. ”

It consequently proposes that the full Committee should address an enquiry to Governments (Ministries of Education) and higher schools, in order to ascertain in what measure they would be prepared to place scholarships and grants at the disposal of the most deserving students of countries with a depreciated exchange.

Similar requests, according to the wishes expressed by the International Confederation of Students, will be made to the same Governments regarding Custom and transport facilities.

Further, the Sub-Committee proposes that the full Committee should request Governments and higher educational establishments of countries with a depreciated exchange to draw up a small list of students specially qualified to be admitted to the benefits of scholarships and grants in foreign countries. These lists should be accompanied with all the necessary certificates. The Sub-Committee is of opinion that the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation are specially qualified to act as intermediary. Account shall be taken of the recommendations made by the various national unions of students. Information thus obtained and the proposals made by the various parties shall be published immediately in the *Bulletin* of the International University Information Office.

The Inter-University Sub-Committee has noted with great interest the results obtained in the field of intellectual collaboration by means of international associations of students, particularly by the European Student Relief of the World's Student Christian Federation. It requests the National Committees to get in touch with that organisation in regard to all matters pertaining to student relief. It notes with satisfaction that other international federations of students have been associated in this work.

The Sub-Committee further draws the attention of the full Committee and of the National Committees to the international fellowships distributed by the International Federation of University Women, with which it will be necessary to remain in regular contact.

Annex 14.

UNIVERSITY EXCHANGES : PROPOSAL OF THE ROUMANIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

The exchange of professors is considered desirable by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and the National Committees of every country, but in the realisation of this scheme it will be necessary to proceed with some care in order to attain the object.

Certain countries, impoverished by the war, know, in the first place, technical experts coming from countries of advanced education who would be willing by coming to work on the spot to analyse the conditions of intellectual work and to direct educational activities into the right channels. This would not, of course, exclude the exchange of professors of undisputed authority between the various universities.

It is however, particularly in the laboratories and special technical schools and institutes that this activity should be set on foot. Theoretical courses and lectures upon current questions have importance, because they might illuminate the intelligence of the auditors, but it is above all necessary to enable young university men to profit from the experience of men of learning who have contributed to the progress of science. The creation of an International University would be an excellent step in the direction of intellectual co-operation, for it would ensure collaboration between the men of science and learning of the various countries and exchange of ideals, with a view to the improvement of studies and of methods of completing their education. The realisation of this idea, however, seems extremely difficult, if not impossible.

Annex 15.

EXTRACT FROM THE MINUTES OF THE SECOND SESSION OF THE AUSTRIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

The Committee listened to a report by its chairman, Professor A. Dopsch, on his work as the Austrian correspondent of the International Committee and on the second plenary session of that Committee.

The Austrian Committee welcomed the results of the work of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, M. Ruffini's scheme with regard to the protection of scientific property and the efforts designed to encourage the establishment of relations between the universities. The Austrian Committee considered that, in view of the political situation, the plan of establishing an International University was premature ; on the other hand, all the members of the Committee recognised that the work of the International University Information Office would be productive of very useful results. The Committee was of opinion that the various National

Committees might act as branches of the International Office ; they are competent to supply information on all university questions relating to their respective countries, and they could transmit to the International Office or to the other national bureaux any requests which might be addressed to them regarding foreign countries.

The Austrian Committee noted with great interest the proposal to place the Carthusian monastery of Capri at the disposal of artists. It begged the International Committee to exert its influence towards the execution, at the earliest moment, of this plan, which is so important for the artists of the whole world.

The Committee discussed at length the question of the reduction in the number of officials in Austria, which is so prejudicial to the intellectual life of that country, especially as regards the great public collections, museums and libraries. It decided : 1, to renew its representations to the Commissioner-General of the League of Nations, Dr. Zimmerman ; and 2, to instruct Professor Dopsch to raise this question at the meeting of delegates of the National Committees in December and to request the League of Nations to approach the Austrian Government in the matter, as it was a question of maintaining material of great intellectual value from the international point of view.

The National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation ought, it was felt, to be consulted whenever any reduction of staff was deemed inevitable.

At the chairman's suggestion, the Committee decided to utilise the gifts from Japanese universities by founding two scholarships, to be placed at the disposal of the Polytechnic School and the Academy of Fine Arts in Vienna.

The exchange of all duplicate copies of books between libraries, as desired by the International Committee, was considered to be difficult to carry out in the case of books of great value. The Austrian libraries lacked both the staff and the money to select these duplicate copies and to prepare a systematic inventory. It was, however, considered possible to satisfy requests relating to particular publications ; and the National Library in Vienna would send to the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research in London the books which the latter desired to obtain.

The exchange of professors seemed to be still very difficult to organise at the present time ; on the other hand, there would be no objection to an exchange of officials between the museums and archive departments of the various countries. Foreigners must be given the opportunity of working in these institutions ; the National Museum for the History of Art at Vienna, for example, has established a special room for foreigners to work in.

Annex 16.

TRAVELLING STUDENTS : NOTE BY THE LITHUANIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

In view of the great scientific and educational importance of travelling, the Lithuanian Committee would draw the attention of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to the facilities which should be arranged for journeys undertaken with a scientific or educational object.

At the present time, in spite of great progress made in the field of communications, a knowledge of distant countries remains the exclusive privilege of the wealthy classes and of people whose employment requires them to travel. This serious difficulty makes itself felt above all in States recently established, whose financial position and international relations are not yet consolidated and which do not possess adequate means of communication (fleet). Lithuania and the other Baltic States are in this position.

The Lithuanian Committee, therefore, begs the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to take the necessary steps in order to obtain for students and men of science who do not possess adequate resources the right of free transport or transport at reduced prices, particularly on ships making distant voyages. It is desirable that each interested country should be able to place a definite number of berths at the disposal of its students or men of science.

Annex 17.

APPEAL ON BEHALF OF THE LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TOKYO.

Submitted to the Committee by Dr. Nilobé.

Tokyo is the vital centre of Japan in every respect. All the more influential intellectual organisations are situated there. The reconstruction of Tokyo means therefore not merely that of a town or a city, but of the capital of the whole nation. Museums, libraries, educational institutions of all grades have been destroyed. Some of the private universities will, it is said, not be re-installed.

The most important institution, the oldest, highest and largest, which has suffered severely, is the Imperial University. Dating from 1870, it has grown gradually to embrace seven Faculties — Law, Medicine, Science, Literature, Engineering, Agriculture and Economics. The university has 5,000 students, over 500 members on the teaching staff, besides 11 foreigners. It has already begun the work of the winter semester in improvised buildings.

With the exception of the Faculty of Agriculture, which occupies a site outside the city, the whole university, the result of decades of development, has suffered a terrible disaster. The loss is estimated at 3,755,000 yen, equal to about 30,000,000 French francs. The country will do all it can for its reconstruction. My colleagues write me that they have pledged themselves to this task, and one of them is coming to the United States and to Europe to solicit for books, for it is for the library that requests and appeals will be made outside of the country. The number of books lost amounts to 740,000 volumes. The loss was particularly great in the seminar libraries of the Faculties of Letters, Law and Economics. The University is anxious therefore to replenish the libraries with books on humanistic subjects, and has already asked Japanese Embassies in different countries to request universities, learned societies and individuals for assistance in this direction.

If I have thus confined myself to the libraries of the Tokyo Imperial University, it is not because of my own personal connection, but because it is admitted by our Government, as well as by the public, that books stored in this institution will be best used.

The university will be grateful for donations of books, which will be received by the Japanese Embassies in the different capitals, and from thence they will be forwarded to Tokyo.

Annex 18.

NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

Note by the Secretariat.

In one of its resolutions concerning the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation, the Fourth Assembly of the League of Nations "requests the Council to ask the Governments of the Members of the League of Nations to be good enough to lend their moral and financial support to these National Committees — if they have not already done so — and to authorise the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to receive, from any institution or private person interested in the work, funds destined for this purpose."

This text is based on the two resolutions which the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation adopted during its second session.

The Council will at its coming session examine the Assembly's request, but will be unable to give a final decision before receiving further information from the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

The Committee ought therefore to consider the two following points at its present session :

1. That the appeal addressed to the Governments of the Members of the League of Nations should be accompanied by a detailed list of the National Committees, showing their composition and their general methods of working.

Each Government will obviously desire to be informed in the first instance about the National Committee existing in its own country.

In the case of countries where such Committees have already been constituted, or are in course of formation, there will be no difficulty in supplying the necessary information.

In many countries, however, which are not represented on the Committee and where enquiries are not yet sufficiently advanced, nothing has yet been done towards the creation of a National Committee.

As it would be difficult to postpone action on the part of the Council until National Committees have been formed in all countries, the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might perhaps suggest to the Council that it should ask the Governments of countries in which nothing has yet been done in the matter to indicate the institutions or persons best qualified to take the initiative in forming a National Committee. A suggestion of this kind, accompanying the request recommended by the Assembly, would seem opportune, especially as the delegates of several countries which as yet take no part in the work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation have shown a keen interest in its activities.

2. That the authorisation to receive funds destined for the National Committees is open to a twofold interpretation :

(a) It may be taken in its strict sense, in which case the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would have to wait for voluntary gifts ; or possibly its members might personally approach private individuals with a view to obtaining donations.

(b) It might, on the other hand, include the authorisation to issue an appeal similar to that which was sent to institutions in all countries on behalf of Austria, or, at any rate, to address an official appeal to certain specified institutions requesting their support.

The Committee itself might usefully decide in favour of one or other of these interpretations before the request is referred to the Council.

In any case, it would be well to settle beforehand the way in which the funds obtained should be allocated to the National Committees. There would, of course, be no difficulty with regard to donations earmarked for particular countries. The International Committee might, however, also receive funds without any such indication, and in that case it would be necessary to lay down a principle upon which they might be used equitably.

Annex 19.

SUB-COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY : EXTRACTS FROM MINUTES OF THE THIRD SESSION.

FIRST MEETING

held on November 28th, 1923, at 10 a.m.

All the members of the Sub-Committee, with the exception of M. de Reynold, were present
scheme of Senator Ruffini.

The CHAIRMAN declared the session open and requested the Secretary to inform the Sub-Committee of the attitude adopted by the Council and the Assembly towards Senator Ruffini's scheme.

The SECRETARY informed the Sub-Committee that he had prepared a summary of the discussion which had taken place at the Council, at the Fifth Committee and at the Assembly. His summary could be examined at the meeting on the following day.

The CHAIRMAN said that, in accordance with information which had reached him, the general impression appeared to be very favourable and the scheme would be closely examined by governments. He hoped that as a result a very important reform would be inaugurated.

M. LUCHAIRE announced that the French Government had already entrusted the study of the scheme to the " Académie des Sciences ", to the " Académie des Sciences morales et politiques ", and to the " Direction de l'Office national des inventions ". Probably it would be well if he discussed the question with some of the persons who were examining the scheme.

It was decided to discuss the question on the following day.

Proposals of M. Deslrée.

The CHAIRMAN asked M. Deslrée to explain his various proposals.

M. DESTRÉE apologised for not having been able to prepare detailed reports on the different questions owing to pressure of other work. But, in the absence of reports already drawn up, he had very precise ideas which he would like to be permitted to explain to the Committee.

It was feared that artistic life might suffer as a result of post-war conditions owing to difficulty in maintaining normal activities.

He thought it would be well, in order to assure to the artist the product of his work and definitely to protect authors' rights, to take steps (1) to make the various national legislations identical regarding the protection of authors' rights ; (2) to provide for the protection, during the life of the artist and for a period of fifty years after his death, of the rights of the artist and his successors; and (3) to provide for the levying of authors' rights for a short period (for example, for fifty years) for the benefit of a national fine arts fund, which would use the money thus gained for objects of general utility.

This protection would be completed (1) by the " droit de suite ", which would assure to the artist or his heirs a proportion of the proceeds of successive transfers or sales of his work (which already exists in France and Belgium), and (2) by the "droit au respect", — forbidding purchasers to disfigure the work by travesty or mutilating it in any way whatever.

The CHAIRMAN asked if any of the members of the Sub-Committee had any observations to make on the first part of M. Deslrée's statement.

M. RUFFINI said he was wholly in favour of the ideas expressed by M. Deslrée and emphasised the importance of giving effect to the idea of the " domaine public payant ", a question

which at present excited great interest in Italy and in other countries. M. Ruffini believed that action could be taken in two ways : first, by endeavouring to improve the Berne Convention, and, secondly, by influencing the national legislation of different countries.

The CHAIRMAN was strongly impressed by the importance of the ideas expressed by M. Destrée and, above all, by that of the "droit au respect", the application of which would, however, be difficult and delicate, especially after the death of the author.

M. DESTRÉE pointed out that it would always be possible to nominate experts. He would favour a procedure which would permit every citizen to bring a public action in this respect. It was probable that actions would be rare owing to the expenditure involved, and he believed that the law would for the most part act as a preventive, and would prevent the worst abuses.

M. RUFFINI pointed out that two movements, a movement of public opinion and a movement reflected in certain legal decrees, were a proof of the interest taken in this question. He proposed that M. Destrée should draft the text of an article in which this principle would be definitely established.

M. DESTRÉE said that he had prepared the text of a resolution. If this text were adopted by the Sub-Committee and by the Committee, he would undertake to draft it in the form of a draft law.

M. Destrée read the text of the resolutions which he proposed¹.

The CHAIRMAN said that the members of the Sub-Committee would examine the proposed text. He asked M. Destrée to make the second part of his statement.

M. DESTRÉE thought that the artist had a right to be assisted by the community because of the slow productiveness of intellectual work and of the moral progress resulting from artistic work as represented by its influence on successive and numerous beneficiaries. It was necessary to obtain gifts and foundations and to appeal to the initiative of private generosity. The question of pensions was particularly important because of the well-known improvidence of artists. It was necessary to assist the production of young artists, and at the same time to achieve the object pursued by the League by bringing together the peoples by increasing facilities for travelling and residence abroad, for which already certain official support had been furnished, but which should become more and more numerous.

A discussion took place on the subject of the proposal of the Municipality of Capri, on which the Assembly has asked the Committee to make an enquiry.

After a discussion, in which the CHAIRMAN, M. DESTRÉE, M. RUFFINI, the SECRETARY and M. William MARTIN took part, *it was decided* that Mr. Destrée should continue to take the necessary steps, in agreement with M. Ruffini, in order to be in a position to present concrete proposals to the Sub-Committee before the meeting of the next Assembly.

M. DESTRÉE again emphasised the importance for artists of the establishment of an identity card similar for all countries. This card would facilitate visits to artistic collections in the various countries and would simplify customs formalities. He would present a report on this question.

The CHAIRMAN warmly thanked M. Destrée for having so thoroughly examined all these questions. There now remained only the work of drafting.

Various Questions.

The SECRETARY said that the Secretariat had received letters asking the League to take up the question of the protection of works of art in time of war.

M. LUCHAIRE pointed out that perhaps it would be well to examine later the question of the protection of the beauties of nature.

The CHAIRMAN, after having heard the views of the Sub-Committee, said that these questions would be placed on the agenda of a later session.

M. René WORMS (Secretary-General of the "Institut international de Sociologie") was introduced, and the CHAIRMAN asked him to speak on the question of the "droit au nom".

M. WORMS explained that, as the result of an incident in which a foreign personality was implicated, a false use had been made of the name of the "Institut international de Sociologie" which, founded more than thirty years ago, had already held eight congresses and published fourteen annals. Should not international groups, which were becoming more and more numerous, be protected against such incidents? M. Worms thought that the difficulty could be overcome in the following way : There might be kept, under the auspices of the League of Nations, an optional register of international intellectual associations ; on this register, only the associations which did not take the name of already existing associations would be inscribed. On the other hand, a kind of arbitral jurisdiction might be established, which would be entrusted with the task of preventing disputes and illegalities of this kind.

After an exchange of views on the question, *the Sub-Committee adopted the text proposed by M. Luchaire*².

The meeting rose at 12.40 p.m.

¹ See text of M. Destrée's proposal with the amendment introduced as a result of the discussion, p. 23.

² See text of M. Luchaire's proposal with the amendments introduced at the third meeting, p. 25.

SECOND MEETING

held on November 28th, 1923, at 3.30 p.m.

All the members of the Sub-Committee, except M. Bergson, whose place as Chairman was taken by M. Destrée, and M. de Reynold, were present.

Examination of the Proposals of M. Destrée.

M. DESTRÉE asked the members of the Sub-Committee if they had any observations to make on the text of the resolutions which he had presented at the first meeting.

Following the observations of M. William MARTIN and of M. RUFFINI, the text of resolution (b) was modified in the following way :

“ After the lapse..... the right to draw a profit from the work belongs to a national fund, etc. ”.

The Sub-Committee adopted the text thus modified of the resolutions presented by M. Destrée.

In the absence of M. de Castro, the Sub-Committee decided to retain on the agenda the proposal of M. de Castro regarding the foundation of international prizes.

On this subject it adopted a proposal put forward by M. Luchaire¹.

Examination of the Proposals of the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers; Hearing of M. Gallié, Secretary-General of the Confederation.

M. DESTRÉE welcomed M. Gallié, and informed him of the resolutions presented by M. Destrée and adopted by the Sub-Committee.

M. GALLIÉ referred to the statement which he had had the honour of presenting to the Committee during its second session.

(a) Development of the Protection of Literary and Artistic Property.

M. GALLIÉ said that before asking the various countries to adopt measures for this purpose it would, in his opinion, be well to ask the League of Nations to try to induce the countries which had not already done so to adhere to the Conventions of Berne.

After a discussion on American copyright, in which M. RUFFINI, M. LELAND and M. GALLIÉ took part, the SECRETARY pointed out that M. Röthlisberger, Director of the Berne Bureaux, expressed in his report the hope that the United States would soon adhere to the Berne Conventions.

M. DESTRÉE proposed a resolution, which was adopted by the Sub-Committee².

(b) Protection of University Degrees.

After a discussion between M. GALLIÉ, M. TORRES-QUEVEDO and M. DESTRÉE, this question was sent to the Universities Sub-Committee.

(c) Protection of Professional Titles.

M. GALLIÉ at first explained the situation from the French point of view. He pointed out that certain professions (doctors, chemists, herbalists, midwives) were regulated by law, but provision had not been made for the use of the title apart from the profession. Serious abuses had resulted in the case of lawyers, architects, and especially engineers.

M. Gallié thought that the solution of the problem would be relatively simple in the case of lawyers, but more difficult for architects because of private educational establishments, and still more complex for engineers who might have had widely different training. It would be equally necessary to regulate the position of the self-taught.

M. RUFFINI pointed out that the situation was the same in Italy, but that the question had been regulated by provisions of a legal nature.

M. TORRES-QUEVEDO agreed that the question, while simple for doctors and architects, was more complex for engineers. Personally, he would be in favour of a certain professional liberty, the titles being recognised but not obligatory.

M. GALLIÉ pointed out that the question was important, especially for apprentices or for young engineers who were devoting, or had devoted, a number of years to their studies, and who found themselves in a state of inferiority if their title was not protected. It was a question of ensuring, on the one hand, the maintenance of the level of studies which conferred advantages on those who pursued them, and, on the other hand, of protecting the public, who risked applying to persons not possessing the required knowledge.

¹ See text of M. Luchaire's proposal, p. 23.

² See text of M. Destrée's proposal, p. 24.

M. William MARTIN said he had prepared a paper which he desired to summarise for the Sub-Committee.

He had first established a list of the countries where a movement for protection was developing. This movement was sufficiently international to interest the Sub-Committee. The problems which presented themselves were connected : protection of titles, equivalence of degrees, and measures with a view to guiding international posts for professional men.

M. Martin then gave a rapid sketch of the legislation in force in various countries. He pointed out, in particular, that in the case of Poland penalties for the illegal use of academic degrees had been provided. In most countries, however, common law was resorted to.

As M. Gallié had pointed out, those who held certificates should be protected as much in their own interests as in the interests of the public. This protection might apply to two kinds of titles, university titles and professional titles. Certain titles belonged at the same time to both these categories.

What were the abuses against which the holders of diplomas should be protected ? First, against unfair competition with persons who had not diplomas but who made no claim to possess them and, secondly, against those who pretended to have diplomas but in reality did not possess them. It was also necessary to examine the case of those who had bought certain titles or who possessed diplomas given by schools without recognised standing.

M. Martin thought that protection might be afforded either by legal measures or by action taken by the universities and great professional associations.

In conclusion, he believed that it would be necessary thoroughly to study the national laws on the subject. He left aside for the moment the question of purely university titles, which was dealt with by another Sub-Committee. With regard to professional titles, there would have to be decided not only the question of the false use of titles but that of " worthless titles ", which might lead the Sub-Committee to exercise a kind of control of education. If it were necessary to make a choice, from the international point of view, of the professions to be protected, it seemed that the technical professions and the medical profession were most in need of such protection.

M. Martin thought that, from this point of view, it would be well to encourage an international agreement between the great professional and technical associations in the various countries.

Dr. NITOBÉ asked M. Gallié if a national law existed for the protection of the titles of associations.

M. GALLIÉ replied that these titles were only protected when they were used as a means for obtaining profit.

M. DESTREE thought that the question could not be treated from the standpoint of public interest. In fact, numerous objections could be made from this point of view. If the State guaranteed the title, it should equally guarantee the work of the person who held the title. It seemed to him that the best way of regarding the question was that of M. William Martin — it was a question of unfair competition.

The question did not present the same aspect for every profession. Doctors were sufficiently protected. For lawyers there existed in Belgium a law, the application of which gave excellent results. For architects, protection was more difficult, especially when there was not education by the State which alone granted diplomas. The difficulties were yet greater in the case of engineers, because of the numerous fields of specialisation in the various technical spheres.

M. Destrée believed that the indication of the school which had granted the title, etc., would give results. It seemed to him that the Sub-Committee might deal with this question and give its support to the suggestions which had been made.

M. LUCHAIRE was struck by the rather unilateral character of the information presented to the Sub-Committee. Certain countries only had been mentioned, and it seemed to him that, first of all, a study should be made of the present condition of the laws in the other countries.

M. DESTREE thought that the two procedures could be made to agree. The Sub-Committee might propose that the Committee should support the movement by means of a general recommendation, at the same time providing for a further study of the question.

M. RUFFINI agreed. The Sub-Committee might pass a recommendation of a general character ; at the same time M. William Martin, who had already done important work, might continue his enquiries.

M. William MARTIN said that the enquiry required administrative facilities which he did not possess. He would proceed this year to an enquiry regarding engineers and chemists, and he was quite ready to collect information from them on the question of the protection of titles. But he thought that the Secretariat would be better qualified to collect the information regarding the legislation in various countries.

He believed that it would be advisable to start from the idea of unfair competition, as suggested by M. Destrée, an idea which appeared in the Covenant and of which the Economic Committee of the League of Nations was at present making a thorough study. He added that perhaps it would be well to consult this Committee with a view to practical measures if the need should arise.

The Sub-Committee approved this suggestion, and asked the Chairman to give effect to it.

After an exchange of views, in which M. LUCHAIRE, M. MARTIN, and M. GALLIÉ took part, M. DESTREE proposed a text *which was adopted by the Sub-Committee*¹.

¹ See text of M. Destrée's proposal, p. 24.

(d) *Protection of the Moral Right of the Artist over his Work.*

M. GALLIÉ, replying to a question of M. Destrée, admitted that the expression "droit moral" might be open to certain criticism, and that the term "droit au respect" corresponded more exactly with the intention of the phrase.

M. DESTRÉE thanked M. Gallié for the statement which he had been good enough to make to the Sub-Committee.

The meeting rose at 6 p.m.

THIRD MEETING

held on November 29th, 1923, at 10 a.m.

All the members who had attended the preceding meeting were present.

Communication from the International Association to combat Unemployment.

The Sub-Committee was informed of the address forwarded by M. Fuss, Secretary-General of the International Association to Combat Unemployment, which contained a description of the General Assembly of this Association, held at Luxemburg in September, 1923.

It further expressed the desire of that Association that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would interest itself in the Association's action in regard to unemployment among the intellectual classes, and that it would establish a method of co-operation, if it thought good, with this Association.

After explanations by M. William MARTIN, and on the proposal of M. DESTRÉE, *the Sub-Committee decided* to instruct M. Bergson to take the necessary steps to ensure that the Committee should be represented at the next congress of the Association to be held at Prague.

Hearing of M. Charles Marie, Secretary-General of the Committee for the Publication of Annual Tables of Constants in Chemistry, Physics and Technology.

M. Charles MARIE was introduced.

M. DESTRÉE extended a welcome to him in the name of the Sub-Committee and invited him to explain the difficulties which resulted from the absence of a legal status for international associations.

M. MARIE pointed out that numerous international organisations, while in practice working satisfactorily, found themselves faced with serious difficulties. Owing to the absence of an international status, it seems that actually these associations, when they wish to remedy these difficulties, have no other solution than to adapt themselves to the laws of the countries in which they had their headquarters.

From the financial and fiscal points of view, among others, the consequences might be very serious (for instance, in the case of the sudden death of the treasurer, etc.).

M. Marie asked if it would be possible, through the intermediary of the League of Nations, to remedy this state of affairs by establishing in the international field a legal status for these associations, and also to ensure the regular payment of certain official subscriptions promised by delegates at international congresses, which it was sometimes difficult to obtain.

After M. RUFFINI, M. DESTRÉE and M. LELAND had spoken and after a discussion, *the Sub-Committee decided* that in its opinion it was impossible to put into practice the proposed suggestions within the sphere of the League of Nations.

Scheme of M. Ruffini.

M. RUFFINI, having read the document prepared by the Secretariat, noted that his scheme had not met with any opposition in principle in the Council, the Fifth Committee or the Assembly. The discussion had dealt only with the question whether the initiative should come from the States or from the League of Nations.

M. Ruffini thought that it was difficult to bring national legislations into agreement, and that it was preferable to use an international organisation which did not exist at the time of the establishment of the first conventions, but which could now propose typical or standard laws.

The objections raised had been refuted with success by M. Jacques Bardoux.

M. LELAND asked what had been done as a result of the observations made by M. Wigmore, and especially of the second observation which he had presented, namely : that in the Anglo-Saxon countries it would be preferable for the movement to be initiated by professional organisations and public opinion than by the intervention of the Government.

M. RUFFINI recalled that Article 5 of the draft Convention had been modified as a result of the discussion which he had had with M. Wigmore, and that this article, in its present form, was based on M. Wigmore's ideas. Moreover, the draft had been sent to the States not for signature but for discussion, which was in accordance with the idea that M. Wigmore had expressed in his note.

The meeting rose at 12.10 p.m.

FOURTH MEETING

held on November 29th, 1923, at 3 p.m.

All the members who had attended the preceding meeting were present.

Scheme of M. Ruffini · Hearing of M. Lyon-Caen.

M. DESTRÉE, on behalf of the Sub-Committee, extended a welcome to M. Lyon-Caen, Permanent Secretary of the " Académie des Sciences morales et politiques ", and thanked him for having been good enough to come and explain his ideas on the scheme for the protection of scientific property.

M. LYON-CAEN first thanked the Sub-Committee for agreeing to hear him on a question with which he had been dealing and would continue to deal.

M. Lyon-Caen had thought it advisable for the Legislation Section of the " Académie des Sciences morales et politiques " to study this question, while having requested the assistance of members of the " Académie des Sciences ". The eight members of the " Académie des Sciences morales et politiques " and the six members of the " Académie des Sciences " had met several times to examine this question.

Since then the Minister of Public Education had consulted the " Académie des Sciences " regarding M. Ruffini's scheme, and he had just asked for the opinion of the " Académie des Sciences morales et politiques ".

The Minister of Justice also had consulted the Committee on Industrial Property, working in conjunction with the National Office of Industrial Property, of which M. Lyon-Caen had the honour of being president.

Finally, in an interview with the Minister of Public Education, M. Lyon-Caen had had the opportunity incidentally of raising this question, and he was able to assure himself of the interest which the Minister took in it.

All this proved that France was quite ready to examine the question.

M. Lyon-Caen paid a tribute to the author of the draft Convention for the considerable and careful work contained in the scheme and expressed to him his warmest congratulations.

The meeting of the members of the two academies had unanimously endorsed the principle of scientific protection, with the exception of one savant, who had expressed the fear that savants might be led to take an excessive interest in pecuniary questions and that a large number of law-suits might occur.

With regard to the nature of legal protection, it was not judged possible to establish an exclusive law analogous to the right of an inventor to a patent ; it was only thought necessary to establish a means to enable the savant to claim pecuniary fees.

As regards the choice between the patent system and that of literary or artistic protection, the meeting of the members of the two academies had concluded that inventors' rights were more of the nature of industrial property than of artistic and literary property. It had adopted this view from motives of utility and prudence, and also because of the difference which existed between artistic or literary property and inventors' rights.

With regard to the duration of this right, it was thought that it should be shorter than that of literary or artistic property and perhaps a little longer than that of the patent. The period might date from the deposit by the author of the theoretical discovery of a request, accompanied by a description of the discovery, which might be communicated to anyone asking for it. It was thought necessary, in fact, to demand from the savant who desired protection a definite expression of his desire.

With regard to the amount of the fee, opinions had been divided : certain persons had considered that the difficulties to be overcome by the judge would be very great, but the Committee on Industrial Property had thought that it would be possible to surmount them by resorting to the services of experts, failing agreement between the interested parties.

There was another question : who should pay the fee ? In order to avoid law-suits, it had been proposed that the fee should be paid by those who obtained a patent for the industrial application of the discovery. The Committee on Industrial Property had, however, rejected this system.

Both meetings had agreed that it was essential that legal property should be admitted in all countries or at least in a certain number.

M. Lyon-Caen, after having read the questionnaire drawn up by him, which had been communicated to the persons consulted, passed to an examination of the draft convention.

He emphasised the necessity, before establishing an international convention, of examining previous national laws protecting scientific property or, as an alternative, of introducing

into the Convention a clause by which States should undertake to introduce into their internal legislation rules for the protection of scientific property in conformity with the principles laid down in the Convention.

Perhaps the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation was too much preoccupied with details of application and secondary questions. The draft Convention, which was an admirable piece of work, was perhaps too detailed, a fact which laid it open to criticism and risked compromising the success of the general principle of the protection of scientific property. The protection of pharmaceutical remedies and preparations was, for example, a much-discussed subject, and quite distinct from that of scientific property. In his opinion, agreement on general principles was of primary importance, and, if there were agreement on the principles, the solution of the subsidiary questions would not present any real difficulty.

M. DESTRÉE, on behalf of the Sub-Committee, thanked M. Lyon-Caen for his very interesting communication. He pointed out that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, in adopting M. Ruffini's scheme, had wished to indicate in an explanatory document the ideas which it approved.

M. RUFFINI said he was very grateful to M. Lyon-Caen for his flattering remarks on the draft Convention. All the observations of M. Lyon-Caen deserved a careful study.

He recognised that the draft Convention should contain an article by which the States undertook to introduce into their national legislation provisions in conformity with the principle of the Convention.

The reproach might be made that the draft Convention was too detailed, but the author and the Committee had wished to avoid another charge to which it was liable — that of being too vague. It was thought preferable to present abundant material, some of which might be suppressed, rather than a scheme needing to be amplified.

The question of the protection of pharmaceutical products appeared in the French drafts mentioned in the paper which preceded the draft Convention: it had been introduced in to the proposed Convention as a tribute to these drafts and owing to a desire that the problem should be considered in all its bearings.

With regard to the nature of inventors' rights, it was evident that a considerable difference existed between artistic and literary property, which could not be the object of expropriation, and scientific property. Perhaps something intermediate between the system of the industrial patent and the system of artistic and literary property could be provided, for example, by some sort of precautionary patent, as was adopted in certain countries.

It was equally difficult to fix the amount of the fee. But, in the absence of agreement between the interested parties, a simple forfeit would satisfy many savants.

M. Ruffini again thanked M. Lyon-Caen for his observations, which he proposed to examine and think over with all the care which they deserved.

M. LYON-CAEN added that, if protection was admitted, publicity of the discovery was necessary, not in a review which might be little known but publication in legal form.

The system of rewards which had been recommended, always retained a certain arbitrary character and was often slow of application. The legal protection of scientific property would constitute an undeniable step forward and would repair what might be called without exaggeration a veritable injustice.

M. DESTRÉE was sure he interpreted the feeling of the Sub-Committee in warmly thanking M. Lyon-Caen for the statement and observations which he had been good enough to present.

Protection of Artistic and Literary Property: Hearing of M. Georges Lecomte, President of the Société des Gens de Lettres.

M. DESTRÉE, on behalf of the Sub-Committee, extended a welcome to M. Georges Lecomte, and said that the Sub-Committee would be very glad to hear him regarding the question of the protection of literary and artistic rights and of the "domaine public payant".

M. Georges LECOMTE thanked the Sub-Committee for having invited him. He noted with satisfaction the progress of ideas regarding the moral right of authors and on the "domaine public payant" which, thanks to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, were on the eve of being realised, and for which the "Société des Gens de Lettres" of France had fought for more than forty years.

Having noted the resolutions proposed by M. Destrée and adopted by the Sub-Committee, he entirely approved them, pointing out however that the word "writer" should be added to the word "artist" in the text of the resolution.

M. DESTRÉE indicated that the word "artist" had been used in its widest sense, and applied equally to writers.

M. Georges LECOMTE, on the subject of the "droit au respect" of the writer, said it was important and just that the work of the artist should be protected, even after death, against various possibilities, as, for example, the alteration in standing, in ideas or literary tendencies

of a publishing house, or the ideas of certain heirs which might be contrary to those of the author. It would be well for certain bodies (associations, syndicates, etc.) to intervene so as to assure respect for the work of an author or artist.

M. DESTRÉE was in complete agreement in principle, but he thought that practically it would be difficult to establish this right as against the heirs. It would be necessary to provide for a kind of testamentary authorisation given to these large associations to intervene.

M. RUFFINI agreed with M. Destrée. He pointed out that in Italy, numerous cases had shown the necessity for an intervention of this nature, for which professional groups appeared to be the best intermediaries.

M. Georges LECOMTE pointed out that the "Société des Etudes législatives", which included specialists on these questions, was of the opinion that the intervention of interested persons and bodies was legally possible and even desirable.

M. DESTRÉE thought that the question, as he had said, raised certain delicate problems. He would be glad if M. Lecomte and M. Gallié (who were connected with the "Société des Etudes législatives") would be good enough to provide the Sub-Committee with documents regarding this question. The Sub-Committee would then study the problem of organising the "droit au respect" with the help of the interested associations.

M. Georges LECOMTE and M. GALLIÉ said that the necessary documents would be sent to the Sub-Committee.

With regard to the "domaine public payant", M. Georges LECOMTE recalled the long campaign of the "Société des Gens de Lettres" to obtain the "domaine public payant" which it had always demanded. He thought that this idea was the only means, in view of the actual financial condition of the various States, of aiding efficiently artists and writers and of organising "intellectual credit".

In reply to a question by M. LUCHAIRE, M. Georges LECOMTE pointed out that if the "Société des Auteurs dramatiques" had seemed a little hostile to this idea he would be surprised, for it received, under a treaty with all theatres, a variable percentage on all plays represented, even on classical plays (except at the Théâtre français); and, so far as it was concerned, it had in practice realised the idea of the "domaine public payant". The percentage proposed by the "Société des Gens de Lettres" would be considerably less than that collected by the "Société des Auteurs dramatiques".

M. RUFFINI recalled the campaign in Italy in favour of the "domaine public payant", and pointed out that dramatic authors who were not protected in the same way as in France were the first to ask for the "domaine public payant".

M. William MARTIN desired to present two observations: in the first place, the Sub-Committee worked in the international field, and it must not be forgotten that certain countries, far from having already instituted the "domaine public payant", scarcely knew of literary protection.

He quoted the example of Switzerland, where there was an active propaganda, which made use of certain arguments of a democratic character against the protection of artistic and literary property.

Secondly, he thought that by protecting authors too much, they would in the end be injured.

Publishers assumed certain risks in publishing modern works; if they did not find some compensation in connection with more ancient works, difficulties would be raised by them regarding new works.

M. William Martin was not opposed to the idea of the "domaine public payant", but he believed it was important not to go too far.

M. Georges LECOMTE thought that this last observation was very just; he also emphasised the need for moderation in the use of the fee to be demanded on works which had become public property.

He believed it was essential that the idea of the "domaine public payant" should be adopted and maintained by the League of Nations.

From an international point of view, the question of the "domaine public payant" had already been raised in all countries and that several States, including Italy, had adopted this reform and had included it in their legislation. He expressed the hope, which the facts justified, that an increasing number of countries would adhere to the Berne Conventions. He finally informed the Sub-Committee that M. Jules Clerc, who had been associated with the "Société des Gens de Lettres" since 1875, together with himself, would remain at the entire disposal of the Sub-Committee for any further information.

M. DESTRÉE said that the question of a further hearing of M. Georges Lecomte and M. Clerc would be reserved for the decision of the Chairman, M. Bergson, and he warmly thanked M. Lecomte, on behalf of the Sub-Committee, for his very interesting statement.

The meeting rose at 5.30 p.m.

Annex 20.

EXTRACT FROM THE MINUTES OF THE FOURTH SESSION
OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE ON BIBLIOGRAPHY.

FIRST MEETING

held on November 30th, 1923, at 10 a.m.

Present : All the members of the Sub-Committee, with the exception of Mlle. Bonnevie and Mme. Curie-Sklodowska.

Preparatory Work for the Conference concerning the Conventions of 1886.

The SECRETARY summarised his preliminary report, based on the contents of the replies to the questionnaire despatched to the various national exchange offices by the Director of the Belgian Exchange Office in conformity with the Sub-Committee's decision taken at its Brussels session.

From the replies obtained up to the present, it was possible to note that regular relations between exchange offices were very inadequate even as regarded the offices set up in those States which had adhered to the Conventions of 1886. On the other hand, there were States, for example, France, which, without adhering to those Conventions, were, none the less, carrying out the practice of international exchanges to a very large extent.

Most countries were in favour of the extension of those exchanges to unofficial scientific and literary publications, and certain exchange services wished for a revision of the Convention of 1886 in order to make this possible. The replies had also been almost unanimous in regard to the proposal to convene a conference of experts to examine in what manner it would be possible to develop and perfect the system of exchanges.

It seemed, therefore, that this conference was essential. Preliminary steps ought to be taken with regard to the Smithsonian Institution, in order to ascertain whether it would be ready to take part in the conference¹.

After having obtained its reply, the Committee would be in a position to request the Council to call the conference, and to place the question of the exchange of publications on the agenda of the Fifth Assembly.

M. LAFONTAINE made several observations concerning the difficulties raised by certain Governments with regard to international exchanges.

No Government should consider as a serious charge the sending of a copy of its official publications to each of the fifty-three other countries Members of the League of Nations. Certain Governments complained that they did not receive in exchange publications of an equal value. As far as these Governments were concerned, the automatic despatch of official publications might be replaced by the despatch of a list from which the Governments might choose the publications which would be of most use to them.

The question of free postage for the despatch of official publications was very important for countries with depreciated exchanges, and should be dealt with favourably.

With regard to scientific publications, etc., exchange was obviously desirable, and it was advisable that the exchange should be made gratuitously especially in the case of publications of institutions which were more or less official (academies, etc.). Exchanges made by private organisations (learned societies, etc.) should not entail the obligation of a deposit of fifty-four copies destined for the different States. The exchange of lists of such publications should also be recommended.

The CHAIRMAN proposed that M. Lafontaine's observations should be taken into account in the final report on this question.

He drew attention to the fact that it was difficult in the exchange of international publications to distinguish between the sacrifices to be made by such and such an organisation or learned body. If, for example, an international exchange of the theses for doctors' degrees was decided on, certain countries would demand of the doctor an obligatory deposit of the necessary copies for an international exchange. The charge would eventually rest on private persons.

The SECRETARY emphasised that the theses need not be sent automatically ; lists of them could be communicated to the different countries, from which they might choose the works which interested them.

M. GODET approved this solution. He emphasised that it would be difficult to apply the same rules to official and to non-official publications. Moreover, the publications of private institutions would not be affected, even if a legal deposit by publishers was enforced for the organisation of an international exchange.

¹ Since the Paris session, the secretariat of the Committee has received the reply of the Smithsonian Institution to the questionnaire sent to it by the Belgian Exchange Office. The Institution states that it is quite ready to take part in the proposed conference but that it wishes to have more detailed information on the subject before finally deciding to send a representative.

Dr. SCHRAMM said it would certainly be difficult to obtain a large number of gratuitous copies of American scientific periodicals. Contrary to general opinion, most of these periodicals were in a difficult position financially.

The CHAIRMAN asked if the United States would be ready to participate in the proposed conference.

Dr. SCHRAMM said that he could not reply officially. He knew that the Smithsonian Institution was very much interested in the question, and he thought that an unofficial invitation should be sent to it.

The Sub-Committee decided to ask its American member to get into touch unofficially with the Smithsonian Institution.

The Committee would then request the Council officially to invite it to participate in the conference.

M. LUCHAIRE submitted certain observations on the problem of international exchanges. In his opinion this question was larger than it appeared. All the nations made great sacrifices in sending their publications abroad, and the problem should be treated in its entirety. It would be necessary to prepare a programme for the conference of experts with great care.

The Sub-Committee asked M. LAFONTAINE, M. LUCHAIRE and the SECRETARY to be good enough to present a draft resolution.

Use to be made of the Work of the International Institute of Bibliography, Brussels.

M. GODET, Rapporteur, recalled the former resolution of the Committee regarding the use of the International Institute of Bibliography as a centre for the organisation of bibliography titles arranged according to the names of authors.

The Assembly had passed a resolution not only concerning this question but concerning the whole work of the International Institute of Bibliography.

M. Godet first referred to the difficulties which resulted from the spirit and manner of work of the International Institute. The reproach had been made that it lacked clearness, a critical sense, and that it endeavoured to embrace every country, every language, every period and every subject, a task which was difficult to achieve. The Institute undertook one gigantic task after another. Apart from the international alphabetical index, it had undertaken an international subject index, a universal iconographic catalogue, archives of the present times, a general catalogue of Belgian libraries, etc.

As the collections had all been begun at the same time, they comprised material which was incomplete, of very unequal value and assembled, as it seemed, by chance, to a very great extent.

For its systematic classification, the Institute had adopted the decimal system, on which opinions differed. Finally, the Institute had been reproached because of its propensity to overrate the value of index cards, and because it was said to mistake the means for the end.

It was none the less true that the Institute responded to a real and increasing need, namely, the need of intellectual workers to be informed as rapidly as possible regarding the works of their predecessors and contemporaries. In the different countries, bibliography had generally developed at random and without a definite plan; it had become necessary to have a co-ordination of effort by building up a general and universal bibliography over and above the national and special bibliographies, and by creating as an organ of liaison a central organisation for giving information and for the execution of work to be undertaken in common.

The work accomplished at Brussels was considerable. More than twelve million cards had been collected, and it could be said that certain parts of the catalogue (zoology and kindred sciences, social sciences, etc.) had a real value.

The Institute had also done much to perfect bibliographical technique and methods. For a quarter of a century it had acquired a reputation which could not be ignored. The disinterested labour of its creators must call for respect.

At present it was in a difficult position. Its future was not assured, and it was even threatened with eviction from the Palais mondial, where it was now housed.

If its activities were interrupted, a serious loss would certainly result, as it would some day be necessary to create a similar institution at fresh expense.

He concluded that it was necessary to give strong help to the Institute, but help could not be granted without discrimination or unconditionally to all its activities. The solution was to give it a mandate for certain definite tasks.

M. Godet then submitted the following programme regarding the tasks to be assigned to the Institute, the means of assisting it and the control which might be exercised if the Institute were subsidised by the Governments or by the League of Nations.

1. *Tasks to be assigned to the Institute.*

A. *Bibliography of Bibliography.* This should be taken in the largest acceptation of the term, i.e. the establishment of exhaustive alphabetical and methodical catalogues:

(a) concerning bibliographical publications (periodicals or not, bibliography retrospective or current, and both primary and analytic);

(b) concerning the history of the production and sale of books, as well as the history and process of every means of reproduction;

(c) concerning publications on libraries and archives, places of preservation for books and written documents ;

(d) concerning publications on the organisation of intellectual work and scientific co-operation.

B. *Centralisation of information* regarding bibliographical institutions and societies, libraries and other organs of scientific information.

C. *Publication of an Annual or Bibliographical Index*, which would be for bibliography what *Minerva* or the *Index Generalis* is for the university world and which would keep those interested informed as to what was being done in this domain.

D. *Information Service*, oral or by correspondence, in connection with national or special information offices with which the Institute would be in communication and for which it would act as an organ of liaison and transmission.

E. In relation with these various services, the constitution or development of an *international library* of bibliographical works which would complete the equipment of the Institute and serve as a basis for various works.

F. Finally (the formation of national bureaux for the preparation of "abstracts" or analytical summaries being provided for, and the recommendation having been made that these bureaux should be affiliated to an international organ), the choice of the Institute as a *centre of deposit and exchange of summaries*, if the recommendation is carried out.

Apart from its official mandate, the Institute would remain free to pursue other work.

2. *Methods of assisting the Institute.*

(a) Invitation to restrict the field of activity and to concentrate on some specially defined tasks.

(b) Official mandate from the League of Nations for certain works.

(c) Advance of funds for the publication of a bibliographical annual.

(d) Annual credit, intended exclusively for the execution of specified tasks, to be deposited under terms to be determined.

(e) Request of the League of Nations to all States to take measures to induce libraries and other institutions to send gratuitously three copies of all their catalogues, bibliographies, and bibliographical periodicals to the Institute.

(f) Request of the League of Nations to all States to grant the Institute a subsidy for the execution of work requested or approved by the League (to be taken in part, if necessary, from the credits previously allotted to the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature ; they might partially take the form of subscriptions for a certain number of copies of the annual or other publications edited by the Institute at the request of the League of Nations).

3. *Control.*

All that can be laid down is that control must be exercised by representatives of the authorities or organs which might subsidise the Institute. The extent and organisation of the control could only be decided when the nature and importance of the support to be afforded was known.

4. *Procedure.*

(a) Once the above programme was adopted in principle, the Sub-Committee would appoint delegates to discuss the articles with the directors of the International Institute, and to prepare with them on this basis a draft convention.

(b) The delegates would submit the draft Convention to the Sub-Committee at its next session, and particularly proposals as to the amount of the advance and subsidy to be granted.

(c) The Sub-Committee, if agreed, would recommend the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to adopt the Convention and to approve the grant of credits, and it would be for the Committee to obtain the necessary decisions and authorisations from the superior authorities of the League of Nations.

(d) Once the Convention was signed by the two parties, and the credits granted by the competent authorities, the delegates of the Sub-Committee would draw up a detailed and specific programme of work for a first period of several years, indicating precisely the nature and order of the work to be undertaken.

(e) The delegates of the Sub-Committee would exercise control — if necessary, in conjunction with the representatives of other organs or authorities — and would report at least once a year to the Sub-Committee on work executed or proposed.

M. LAFONTAINE reserved to a later meeting his reply to M. Godet's statement.

SECOND MEETING

held on November 13th, 1923, at 3 p.m.

Present : All the members who had attended the first meeting, as well as Madame Curie-Sklodowska and M. Leland. M. Bergson was unable to be present at the meeting, and the Chair was taken by M. Lafontaine.

Technical Conferences summoned in order to Co-ordinate the Work of Analytical Bibliography.

The SECRETARY explained and commented on a note prepared regarding these conferences which might be convened during future sessions of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography. The note contained, in the first place, a list of the organisations which ought to take part in each of the proposed conferences. These lists had been furnished by those persons and institutions who had proposed that these special conferences should be summoned.

Madame Curie-Sklodowska had been consulted with regard to the conference on physics and physical chemistry; M. Marouzeau regarding the conference on classical philology, and the American Sociological Association, as well as the Solvay Institute, regarding the conference on the social sciences.

The secretariat had received that morning a reply from the American Sociological Association, which was willing to collaborate, and asked that the meeting relating to social sciences might take place in the summer, in order that American scholars and scientists might participate.

The Secretary also pointed out that a conference of the " Conseil international de Physique Solvay " was arranged to take place at Brussels towards Easter 1924.

In view of the fact that several associations and publications working in the same field were in existence in certain countries, it would be desirable for each country to be represented by one delegate who should have reached an agreement beforehand with these associations and publications and would be able to speak for them. With regard to physics and physical chemistry, it was necessary to take into account the unions of physics and chemistry affiliated to an international organisation already in existence. This was the International Research Council, which was greatly interested in questions of bibliography and documentation.

1. *Physics and Physical Chemistry.*

MADAME CURIE-SKLODOWSKA thought it would be well to come to an understanding with the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry, which covered a vast field of questions, different in many respects from the subject reserved for study by the proposed conference.

Certain of these questions, however, came within the suggested limits of the conference, and it would be well to have an understanding in order to avoid duplication as far as possible.

DR. SCHRAMM explained the position in the United States regarding physics. He described the author's abstracts published by the two principal journals which dealt with these questions, the *Physical Review* and the *Astrophysical Journal*. He thought that the principal idea should be rather to improve collaboration with the existing organisation in London, namely, the *Science Abstracts*, than to create a new organ. He could, however, only speak for the physicists, and he did not know the opinion of the chemists in this respect.

With regard to the date of the proposed conference, Dr. Schramm asked that the interested American associations and men of learning and science should be informed in sufficient time to enable them to make the necessary arrangements. He pointed out that there was a committee of the American Physical Society concerned with abstracts which could be applied to at any time through the Division of Physical Science of the National Research Council.

The Committee then discussed the list furnished by Madame Curie-Sklodowska.

MADAME CURIE-SKLODOWSKA said that she had written to an Austrian scientist to try and obtain information on the situation in Germany, in order to facilitate the eventual collaboration of German scientists in so far as they might be disposed, but she had not been able to obtain any exact information.

The SECRETARY suggested that perhaps the Austrian National Committee might be asked for information.

M. GODET pointed out that for the *Index Bibliographicus* German collaboration was certain.

M. LUCHAIRE thought that the Sub-Committee might also communicate with M. Lorentz.

DR. SCHRAMM asked for precise information regarding the object of the proposed conference.

MADAME CURIE-SKLODOWSKA said that its object was to obtain conformity in the production of abstracts and, if possible, to secure such co-ordination as might be deemed necessary.

DR. SCHRAMM was of the opinion that the creation of a large number of national organisations would not give the desired results. He quoted as an example " Botanical Abstracts ", for which endeavour had been made to secure a wide collaboration largely on an individual

basis and partly on the basis of national or regional bureaux. The individual collaborators in the various countries have functioned very satisfactorily, but the bureaux have not functioned adequately. He hoped that the question of abstracts prepared by authors themselves would be studied by this conference. As a result of a referendum of the readers of physical journals in the United States, the majority were in favour of this idea.

MADAME CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA believed that this conference should be inspired, above all, by a practical spirit and a useful result might be attained, as it was only necessary to secure agreement between a restricted number of people representing a limited number of scientific publications dealing with abstracts.

The Sub-Committee, after discussion, adopted the resolution proposed by Madame Curie-Skłodowska (see above, page 26.).

2. *Greco-Latin Antiquity.*

M. MAROUZEAU, Secretary of the Society of Classical Bibliography, stated the situation from the point of view of "Greco-Latin Antiquity".

He summarised the development of "abstracts" in the *Revue de philologie, de littérature et d'histoire anciennes*. From this point of view, the centralisation of work was sufficiently advanced in France, and the present system of bibliography, if national in method, was strictly international in result. All possible means were employed for obtaining the necessary information in the various countries.

Certain similar efforts were being made in other countries, but they were rather fragmentary. The German publication which, before the war, was responsible for a great part of this work, was slow in appearing and its existence was precarious.

Dr. SCHRAMM, with regard to the possibility of establishing an analytical bibliography for books, similar to that constituted for the reviews, indicated the method followed for botanical publications in America. American and European publishers had been asked to send a copy of special works on this subject to the journal which published the analytical summaries, and every three months the journal sent proof clippings to the publishers, by which they were able to ascertain what use had been made of the material sent. This system had given good results as regarded American publishers, and even, to certain extent, as regarded publishers in Europe.

*The Sub-Committee agreed that it would be premature and even perhaps useless to convene a special conference for Greco-Latin antiquity abstracts, as had been decided in the case of physics and physical chemistry, for it seemed to result from M. Marouzeau's statement that the *Revue de philologie, de littérature et d'histoire anciennes* constituted in fact an international central publication for documentation in this field.*

Discussion took place, however, concerning the method to be followed in order to find out by entirely objective means which review seemed now the best qualified to continue the publication of abstracts for Greco-Latin antiquity.

As a result of this discussion, the *Sub-Committee decided*, on the proposal of M. LUCHAIRE, to ask the secretariat to make an enquiry into the present position, in the various countries, as regards the bibliography of Greco-Latin antiquity.

The meeting rose at 6.35 p.m.

THIRD MEETING

held on December 1st, 1923, at 10 a.m.

Present : All the members of the Sub-Committee, with the exception of M. Bergson.

M. LAFONTAINE took the Chair for the first part of the meeting and M. LUCHAIRE for the remainder.

Continuation of the Discussion regarding the Question of Conferences on Analytical Bibliography.

1. *Social Sciences.*

After some discussion, in which M. HAGBERG-WRIGHT, M. LUCHAIRE and the SECRETARY took part, *it was decided* in principle that the conference might take place during the summer of 1924, on a date most convenient to the United States representatives.

The secretariat was asked to submit, if possible to the next session of the Sub-Committee, as complete a list as possible of the names of representatives of the various organisations engaged in analytical bibliography for the social sciences.

Examination of the Proposal of M. Godel regarding the use to be made of the International Institute of Bibliography.

M. LAFONTAINE, having yielded the chair to M. Luchaire, said that at the previous meeting M. Godel had first appeared to declaim against the International Institute of Bibliography, and then had complimented it.

He replied first to the objections which had been made regarding the Institute.

With regard to the lack of clarity or precision, he remarked that bibliography should, above all, be complete and that a selection of titles would be a considerable work, which could only be carried out by experts acquainted with the details of each science. The Brussels Institute could only aim at preparing complete bibliographies. It was for the savants themselves to choose between the cards to be communicated to them.

The Institute had also been reproached for having undertaken too much.

He remarked that the documentary encyclopedia which had been added to the library was done, not by the International Institute of Bibliography itself but by the international institutes grouped around it. That was how the International Aeronautic Institute had assembled a large collection of documents on aviation. The same was the case as regarded the International Polar Institute.

With regard to the objection which had been made to the decimal system used for the methodical catalogue, M. LAFONTAINE said that this system had been adopted after several others had been tried. The decimal system was the most rapid for consultation. It was also the only international system.

Madame CURIE-SKŁODOWSKA said that the fault of the decimal system was that it was not elastic, as only nine figures could be used. Principal subjects had necessarily to be placed in subdivisions, and the connection existing between the different branches of a science, as a result, became incorrect.

M. LAFONTAINE said that it was possible from time to time to make a new classification, and that, in any case, the problem only existed for certain sciences undergoing rapid development.

M. LUCHAIRE said that the Committee had testified to the great work accomplished by the International Institute. The problem submitted to it by the Assembly was to find out the best means of making use of the work of the Institute.

The Committee had already decided to use the alphabetical catalogue arranged under authors' names. Was the Sub-Committee prepared, as M. Godet had proposed, to invite the League of Nations to request all the States to induce the libraries and other institutions to send gratuitously to the Institute three copies of all their catalogues, bibliographical compilations and periodicals?

M. LAFONTAINE said that this resolution would be very useful. Since the war, the Brussels Institute had not, for example, been able to obtain the supplements to the catalogue of the British Museum. He proposed that, in place of three, five copies should be asked for, if possible.

Dr. HAGBERG-WRIGHT doubted whether this recommendation would be considered in England, seeing that the International Institute of Brussels was not sufficiently well known there, and that its catalogue was never consulted.

The Sub-Committee should first examine the utility of the catalogue and, if it thought well, make it known by a favourable report.

Mlle. BONNEVIE said that it would be necessary to discuss first the use of the Brussels Institution and the question of the budget to be granted to it, in order that it might be able to render services. The recommendation regarding the free despatch of catalogues could then be taken into consideration.

Dr. SCHRAMM pointed out that the Brussels Institute was very little known in the United States. He did not think that there would be general approval in America for a plan which would place on the Committee the obligation to help to find funds for the Institute, because (1) the Institute did not publish bibliographical tools, and (2) the more generally useful bibliographical publications were in a very precarious financial position.

M. LAFONTAINE said that the Institute already received the catalogue of the principal American library — the Library of Congress.

Mlle. BONNEVIE said that savants had more need of a methodical catalogue than an alphabetical one arranged under authors' names. What was needed was to know what had been published on a particular subject. The system of methodical classification used at Brussels was of little importance. It was most important that the International Institute might be able to furnish information, if requested, on the bibliography of any particular question.

M. LAFONTAINE agreed with this point of view. The Brussels Institute had never ceased in the attempt to draw up a complete methodical catalogue within the limits of the funds at its disposal.

M. GODET remarked that the Committee had up till then approved only the alphabetical catalogue arranged under the names of authors. He considered also that a methodical catalogue would, in principle, be more useful, but, allowing for the difference of views on the subject of classification, he thought that the question of a systematic catalogue should be postponed. He thought, like Mlle. Bonnevie, that the alphabetical catalogue arranged under the names of authors was evidently not sufficient. He had, for this reason, in the various proposals which he had submitted for utilising the work of the Brussels Institute, mentioned the formation of a bibliography of bibliographies, the publication of a bibliographical annual and the development of the service of information; to this should be added the establishment of the Bulletin of the Institute as the organ of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for bibliographical questions.

M. LUCHAIRE asked the secretariat to prepare a draft resolution incorporating the ideas which had just been exchanged.

FOURTH MEETING

held on December 1st, 1923, at 3 p.m.

Present : All the members of the Sub-Committee, with the exception of M. Bergson and Madame Curie-Sklodowska. M. Luchaire took the Chair in the absence of M. Bergson.

Conference regarding the Conventions of 1886. (International Exchange of Publications.)

The SECRETARY read the text drawn up by M. Lafontaine.

A discussion took place as to whether the proposed conference should be a conference of diplomats or experts.

M. LUCHAIRE believed that the presence of diplomats would be necessary for preparing and signing a diplomatic instrument. On the other hand, the States would doubtless object to the expense of two successive meetings, one of experts and the other of diplomats.

He thought it would be possible, without reversing the decision of the Assembly, to hold first a small meeting of experts. The scheme, once it had been drafted, would be submitted to the Governments at the time of a conference which was being held on some other question ; that would avoid useless expense.

During the discussion, the Sub-Committee laid emphasis again on the fact that the presence of an American expert would be most useful. It was understood that, although this did not appear in the text adopted, Dr. Schramm would take the necessary steps to ensure, if possible, the presence of an American expert at the proposed conference. After various drafting modifications, *the Sub-Committee adopted the resolution* (see above, page 26).

Resolution regarding the Use to be made of the International Institute of Bibliography of Brussels.

The SECRETARY read the draft resolution drawn up by M. Godet and M. Luchaire.

M. GODET pointed out that it was desirable that the United States should be represented among the three experts who were to draw up an agreement with the Institute.

The resolution was adopted by the Sub-Committee (see above, page 27).

International Agreement for Co-ordination of Libraries and Exchange of their Foreign Collections.

M. LUCHAIRE apologised that his work, particularly that of the constitution of the French National Committee, had prevented him from preparing a report on the question. Owing, moreover, to the short time which had elapsed since the Assembly, there was nothing very new to report. The question was still in its preliminary stage.

He was glad, at the same time, to be able to say that the French Government was engaged in carrying out the suggestions of the Committee. Two decrees had appeared in August providing for the reorganisation of the Paris libraries in the way desired by the Committee. On the other hand, a bill (the preliminary report on which referred to the resolution adopted by the Committee), which aimed at the fusion of the principal Paris libraries, would shortly be submitted.

It would therefore be desirable for the Committee to state its ideas precisely on the question and to study the means of carrying out the scheme where possible.

M. LUCHAIRE proposed that the Committee should order a thorough enquiry to be made into the organisation of the great libraries, the liaison between the various libraries and, in particular, the facilities offered to foreign workers.

The SECRETARY pointed out that a report had just been published by the Committee regarding the organisation of the Czechoslovakian libraries, and that M. Reverdin was making a study of the United States libraries.

DR. SCHRAMM pointed out that Mr. Richardson, former Librarian of Princeton University, had written to Mr. Sweetser, member of the Information Section of the Secretariat, informing him that the *American Library Association* had just created a special commission for the study of the question, with which the Sub-Committee might be put in communication.

M. LUCHAIRE asked the Secretary to communicate with this special commission and to send it the necessary documents.

M. GODET asked that the question of international loans should be specially examined. It was understood that the expression " facilities of all kind " which appeared in the resolution should be understood as covering every question in connection with access to libraries and the utilisation of the resources of these libraries.

After the adoption of amendments of form proposed by Mlle. BONNEVIE, M. LELAND, Dr. SCHRAMM and M. GODET, *the resolution was adopted by the Sub-Committee* (see above, page 28).

Preparatory Work for the Publication of the Index Bibliographicus.

M. GODET stated that the results obtained up to the present were satisfactory. Certain States had not yet replied, but he hoped that it would be possible to publish the *Index Bibliographicus* during 1924.

Proposal made by the Institute of Historical Research, London, regarding Information on Historical Archives.

The SECRETARY read correspondence exchanged between Professor Pollard and the secretariat¹.

M. LELAND had prepared a note on this question. In his opinion it would be well if the Committee approved this request, in which it was certain that the American Association of Historical Studies would take a deep interest.

He proposed that the secretariat of the Committee should obtain from the Governments information principally on the following points : — date up to which the archives could be consulted ; arrangement regulating access to the archives and their use ; steps necessary for permission to consult archives. This enquiry would cover all national archives, those of various administrations, and all those to which access was regulated by the State.

M. LUCHAIRE pointed out that this enquiry would perhaps allow of an extension of the date after which archives would no longer be accessible.

The SECRETARY said it would also be useful to obtain information regarding private archives which, in certain countries, were of great importance.

M. Leland's proposal was adopted.

¹ Letter from Professor A. F. Pollard to the Secretary of the Committee :

London, November 8th, 1923.

Sir,

I am desired by the Committee of the Institute of Historical Research to ask whether your Committee could assist it in a matter bearing upon intellectual co-operation in the field of study.

A considerable number of postgraduate students are here preparing for work in foreign archives ; but before advising them to have recourse to these archives, or even to select their subject for research, it is necessary that we should know what archives are accessible and down to what date they are open for purposes of historical research. We have obtained an authoritative statement of the information we want, so far as our own Public Record Office is concerned. It is printed on pp. 26-8 of the accompanying copy of the *Bulletin* of this Institute, and should be useful to foreign historical students contemplating research in London.

Our desire is to secure similar information with regard to foreign official archives, and the Committee of Intellectual Co-operation seems to be the obvious means of obtaining it. We should ourselves undertake the expense of printing it in our *Bulletin*, where it would be of use to students of various nationalities. Your Committee will also note that the *Bulletin* contains the " Report on the Editing of Historical Documents ", an advance copy of which was supplied to the Polish Academy in response to a request forwarded to this Institute through the League of Nations.

I enclose for your further information a copy of the first Annual Report of the Institute.

(Signed) A. F. POLLARD,

Chairman of the Committee.

SOCIÉTÉ DES NATIONS

Genève,
le 27 juin 1924.

INTERMUNICIPALITÉ

MÉ MORANDUM SOUMIS PAR LE SECRÉTAIRE GÉNÉRAL A LA CINQUIÈME ASSEMBLÉE.

Le 27 septembre 1923, la quatrième Assemblée a décidé d'inscrire à son ordre du jour et de renvoyer à la cinquième Assemblée la proposition suivante, présentée par la délégation cubaine:

« L'Assemblée:

« Considérant que le maintien des relations directes entre les municipalités importantes des divers pays est une nouvelle forme de coopération entre les peuples qui contribuera fortement à la diffusion des idéals qui ont déterminé la création de la Société des Nations et qui inspirent son activité,

« Décide d'accueillir avec la plus vive sympathie la doctrine de l'intermunicipalité recommandée aux membres de l'Union panaméricaine par la Conférence de Santiago du Chili. »

Les renseignements suivants sont peut-être de nature à intéresser l'Assemblée:

En avril et mai 1924, l'Union internationale des villes, association internationale pour le développement des villes, a fait une démarche auprès du Secrétariat, afin de savoir dans quelles conditions il serait possible d'établir une collaboration utile, notamment en matière d'hygiène publique, entre la Société et l'Union, dont le congrès devait avoir lieu sous peu à Amsterdam (30 juin et 1^{er} juillet). Il fut convenu que le Secrétariat fournirait à l'Union la documentation qui pourrait présenter de l'intérêt pour elle. A la demande de l'Union, le Secrétariat a décidé d'envoyer un représentant au Congrès.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

THE PRINCIPLE OF CLOSER MUNICIPAL RELATIONS

MEMORANDUM SUBMITTED TO THE FIFTH ASSEMBLY BY THE SECRETARY-GENERAL.

A resolution was adopted by the Fourth Assembly on September 27th, 1923, to place on its agenda and to refer to the Fifth Assembly of the League the following proposal submitted by the Cuban Delegation:

"Whereas the maintenance of direct relations between the important municipalities of the various countries is a new form of co-operation between peoples which will contribute largely to diffusing the ideals which led to the creation of the League of Nations and which guide its work:

"The Assembly decides to accept with the greatest sympathy the principle of closer municipal relations which the Santiago Conference recommended to the Members of the Pan-American Union for adoption."

It may be of interest to the Assembly to know that in April and May 1924 the Secretariat was approached by the International Union of Municipalities (*Union internationale des Villes, Association internationale pour le développement des Villes*) on the question how a useful liaison, particularly in the domain of public health, could be established between the League and the Union, which was to hold its Congress in Amsterdam on June 30th and July 1st. It was arranged that the Secretariat should furnish the Union with documentation likely to be of interest to the Union. At its request, the Secretariat also agreed to send a representative to the Congress.

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GENEVA, August 25th, 1924.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

MINUTES

OF THE

FOURTH SESSION

held at Geneva
from Friday, July 25th, to Tuesday, July 29th, 1924.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Composition of the Committee	Page
First Meeting, July 25th, 1924, at 10 a.m.	5
114. Opening of the Session	9
115. Appointment of the Chairman and Vice-Chairman	10
116. Appointment of Sir J. C. Bose as a Member of the Committee	10
117. Travelling Facilities for Students : Communication from the International Confederation of Students	10
118. Establishment of New National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation	10
119. Relations with the Catholic Union of International Studies	11
120. Liaison with the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers	11
121. Report by M. Marinescu on the Work of the Third Session of the Committee...	12
122. Donation from the Rockefeller Foundation to German Libraries	12
Second Meeting, July 25th, 1924, at 3 p.m.	
123. Publicity of Meetings of the Committee	13
124. Enquiry into the Conditions of Intellectual Life in the various Countries :	
(a) Report on Brazil by M. de Castro	13
(b) General Report by M. de Reynold...	13
(c) General Report by M. de Halecki on conditions in Central and Eastern Europe	15
(d) Reports by M. Luchaire	16
(e) Reports by M. Castella on Switzerland and Luxemburg	16
(f) Reports by M. Reverdin on the United States and Canada	17
(g) Report by M. William Martin on the Position of Engineers and Chemists	17
125. Liaison with the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers : Reply of the Committee to the Confederation	17
Third Meeting, July 26th, 1924, at 10 a.m.	
126. Publicity of Meetings of the Committee (<i>continuation of the discussion</i>)	18
127. Establishment of an International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation : Proposal of the French Government	18
Fourth Meeting, July 26th, 1924, at 3.30 p.m.	
128. Establishment of an International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation : Reply to the French Government	21
129. Status of Correspondents of the Committee	22
130. Choice of Correspondents of the Committee	22
131. Budget of the International University Information Office...	22
Fifth Meeting, July 28th, 1924, at 10 a.m.	
132. Publicity of Meetings of the Committee (<i>continuation of the discussion</i>)	23
133. Information regarding National Educational Systems : Note by Professor Gilbert Murray	23
134. Exchange of Professors and Advanced Students between Different Countries : Appointment of a Sub-Committee	23
135. Gift from the Italian Red Cross to Russian Intellectual Workers	24
136. The Cinematograph in its Relations to Intellectual Life : Report by M. Luchaire...	25
137. Report of the Committee of Experts for the International Exchange of Publications	25
Sixth Meeting, July 28th, 1924, at 3 p.m.	
138. Representation of the Committee at the Congress of the Union of International Associations (Geneva, September 8th, 1924)	25
139. Communication from the International University Federation for the League of Nations	26
140. Establishment of an International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation : Draft Report to the Council	26
141. Publicity of Meetings of the Committee : Reply to the Association of Journalists accredited to the League of Nations	26
142. Convention between the League of Nations and the International Institute of Bibliography	26
Seventh Meeting, July 29th, 1924, at 10 a.m.	
143. Liaison with the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers	29
144. International Federation for Mutual Assistance in the Relief of Peoples overtaken by Disaster	29
145. Co-ordination of Analytical Bibliographical Works concerned with Physics and Physical Chemistry : Report prepared by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography during its May Session, 1924 :	
(a) Abstracts	29
(b) Draft Letter to Editors of Periodicals	30
(c) Guiding Principles for the Preparation of Abstracts	31
(d) Use of Abstracts for the Preparation of Index Cards	31

	Page
146. Placing in Reviews of Scientific Studies which their authors are unable to publish : Resolution adopted by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography	31
147. Organisation of Scientific Documentation	32
148. Report of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography on its Session held at Geneva on July 23rd and 24th, 1924 :	
(a) Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry	32
(b) Convention between the National Library of Vienna and the Central Library of Moscow	32
(c) Bibliography of Greco-Latin Antiquity	32
(d) Analytical Bibliography of Physics and Physical Chemistry	33
(e) <i>Index bibliographicus</i>	33
(f) Enquiry regarding Archives : Proposal of the Institute of Historical Research of the University of London	33
(g) Analytical Bibliography of the Social Sciences	34
(h) Publication of Lists of notable Books which have appeared in various Countries in the World... ..	34
149. Agenda of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography	34
150. Report of the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property.	
(a) Scientific Property	35
(b) Protection of Professional Titles	36
(c) Register of International Associations	36

Eighth Meeting, July 29th, 1924, at 3 p.m.

151. Reform of Education : Proposal of M. Lugones	36
152. Appointment of Correspondents of the Committee : Proposal of Mr. Millikan	38
153. Establishment of an Institute of Intellectual Co-operation : Adoption of the Report to the Council	38
154. Examination of the Report of the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations :	
(a) Proposals of the Spanish Government	40
(1) Equivalence of Degrees	40
(2) Inter-University Relations	41
(b) International University Information Office :	42
(1) Principles regulating the Work of the Office	42
(2) Relations with the <i>Index Generalis</i> and the <i>Minerva</i>	43
(3) Appointment of M. Montessus de Ballore as Expert of the Committee to collaborate with the Office... ..	43
(4) Publication of the <i>Bulletin</i> of the Office and other Documents of the Committee	43
(c) Meeting of the Directors of the Inter-University National Offices : Repre- sentation at the Congresses of Warsaw and Prague	44
(d) Intellectual Life in Central and Eastern Europe	46
155. Appointment of a Rapporteur	48
156. Close of the Session	48

COMPOSITION OF THE COMMITTEE.

Members :

- M. H. BERGSON (*Chairman*) Honorary Professor of Philosophy at the Collège de France ; Member of the French Academy and of the Académie des Sciences morales et politiques ; Associate of the Académie royale de Belgique ; Corresponding Fellow of the British Academy ; Foreign Hon. Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh ; Foreign Member of the "Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei", Rome, of the Royal Danish Scientific Society, Copenhagen, and of the Institut national genevois.
- Mr. G. A. MURRAY,
(*Vice-Chairman*) Professor of Greek at Oxford University ; Member the Council of the British Academy ; Delegate of Great Britain to the Assembly of the League of Nations ; President of the Executive Committee of the League of Nations Union.
- Mlle K. BONNEVIE, Professor of Zoology at the University of Christiania ; Member of the Academy of Sciences of Christiania ; Norwegian Delegate at the Assembly of the League of Nations.
- Sir J. C. BOSE, Founder and Director of the Bose Research Institute, Calcutta ; Professor Emeritus of the Presidency College, Calcutta ; Fellow of the Royal Society of London ; Fellow of the Asiatic Society.
- M. A. DE CASTRO, Professor of Clinical Medicine and Director of the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Rio de Janeiro ; Member of the Brazilian Academy.
- Mme CURIE-SKLODOWSKA, Professor of Physics at the University of Paris ; Honorary Professor of the University of Warsaw ; Member of the Paris Académie de Médecine, of the Polish Academy and of the Scientific Society at Warsaw ; Foreign Member of the Amsterdam and Stockholm Academies of Sciences.
- M. J. DESTRÉE, Deputy ; Former Minister for Sciences and Arts ; Member of the Académie royale de Belgique and of the Académie belge de langue et de littérature françaises.
- M. A. EINSTEIN, Professor of Physics at the Universities of Berlin and Leyden ; Member of the Academy of Sciences at Berlin, Foreign Member of the Royal Society of London, and of the Academy of Sciences at Amsterdam.
- M. H. A. LORENTZ, Former Professor of Theoretical Physics at the University of Leyden ; Member of the Amsterdam Academy of Sciences ; Honorary Member of the Vienna Academy of Sciences ; Foreign Member of the Royal Society of London, of the "Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei", Rome, and of the Academy of Sciences of Berlin ; Foreign Associate of the Académie des Sciences, Paris, and the National Academy of Sciences at Washington ; Secretary-General of the Netherlands Scientific Society, Haarlem.
- M. L. LUGONES, Former Inspector-General of Public Education ; Director of the National Library of Professors at Buenos Ayres ; Professor of Esthetics at the National University of La Plata ; Member of the National Academy of Sciences, Córdoba ; Publicist ; Editor of "La Nación", Buenos Ayres.
- Mr. R. A. MILLIKAN, Director of the Norman Bridge Laboratory of Physics at the California Institute of Technology ; Foreign Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences, Washington ; Vice-President of the National Research Council ; Member of the International Research Council ; Exchange Professor to Belgium.

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| M. G. DE REYNOLD, | Professor of French Literature and Sub-Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Berne ; Chairman of the Swiss Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and Vice-Chairman of the Catholic Union for International Studies. |
| M. F. RUFFINI, | Professor of Ecclesiastical Law at the University of Turin ; Senator ; former Minister of Public Education ; President of the Royal Academy of Turin ; Corresponding Member of the “ Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei ”, Rome ; President of the Italian League of Nations Union. |
| M. L. DE TORRES QUEVEDO, | Director of the Madrid Electro-Mechanical Laboratory ; Member of the “ Junta para Ampliación de Estudios ” ; Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Madrid. |

At this session of the Committee Sir J. C. Bose was unable to attend, owing to unforeseen circumstances ; M. Einstein and M. Lugones were present for the first time ; M. de Torres Quevedo was replaced by M. Julio CASARES, of the Royal Academy of Spain, Chief of Section in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Madrid ; Mlle Bonnevie was replaced by Dr. Ragnar KNOPH, Professor of Law at the University of Christiania, Chairman of the University Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Austrian Correspondent :

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| M. A. DOPSCH, | Professor of General History and former Rector of the University of Vienna ; Member of the Vienna Academy of Sciences. |
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Experts :

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| M. G. CASTELLA, | Professor of Swiss History and General History at the University of Friburg. |
| M. J. LUCHAIRE, | Honorary Professor of the University of Grenoble ; Inspector-General of Public Education in France. |
| M. H. REVERDIN, | Professor of Philosophy at the University of Geneva. |
| M. O. DE HALECKI, | Professor of Eastern European History and former Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Warsaw. |

Representative of the Secretary-General of the League of Nations :

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| M. I. NITOBÉ, | Professor of Colonial History at the University of Tokio ; Under-Secretary-General of the League of Nations, and Director of the Section of International Bureaux. |
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Representative of the International Labour Office :

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| M. W. MARTIN, | Privat-Docent at the University of Geneva ; Technical Adviser to the International Labour Office. |
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Secretary of the Committee and Sub-Committees :

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| M. G. OPRESCU, | Lecturer at the University of Cluj, Roumania ; Member of Section at the Secretariat of the League of Nations. |
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COMPOSITION OF SUB-COMMITTEES.

(1) *Bibliography :*

M. BERGSON, Chairman	}	Members of the Committee.
Mlle BONNEVIE,		
Mme CURIE-SKLODOWSKA,		
M. DESTRÉE,		
M. M. GODET,		Director of the Swiss National Library.
Mr. C. T. HAGBERG WRIGHT,		Director of the London Library.
Mr. J. R. SCHRAMM,		Professor of Botany at the Cornell University, Ithaca ; Member of the American National Research Council.

(2) *Inter-University Relations :*

M. BERGSON, Chairman.
M. DE CASTRO,
M. DESTRÉE,
Mr. MILLIKAN,
Mr. MURRAY,
M. DE REYNOLD.

(3) *Intellectual Property :*

M. BERGSON, Chairman.	}	Members of the Committee.
M. DESTRÉE,		
Mr. MILLIKAN,		
M. DE REYNOLD,		
M. RUFFINI,		
M. DE TORRES QUEVEDO,		
M. W. MARTIN.		

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

MINUTES OF THE FOURTH SESSION

FIRST MEETING

held at Geneva on Friday, July 25th, 1924, at 10 a.m.

Present : All the members of the Committee except Sir J. C. Bose.

114. Opening of the Session.

The CHAIRMAN thanked his colleagues for having come to Geneva to take part in the work of the fourth session of the Committee. Special thanks were due to those members who had come from far-distant over-seas countries — namely, Mr. Millikan, M. de Castro and M. Lugones.

The Committee regretted the absence of Mlle. Bonnevie and M. de Torres-Quevedo and welcomed those who had come to take their places M. Knoph, Professor of Law at the University at Christiania, and M. J. Casares, Chief of Department in the Ministry for Foreign Affairs at Madrid.

A new member had joined the Committee — namely, M. Lugones. There was scarcely a single subject — philosophy, æsthetics, the social sciences, the science of finance, art, criticism — with which he had not dealt in the journal — one of the most important in the world — to which he was a contributor. He had been first a university professor and had filled an important position in the general administration of education in the Argentine. He had interested himself in all these varied occupations and had gone even further. He was a poet — one of the great poets of Latin America.

It had been said that literature was not adequately represented on the Committee, but it could be maintained in reply that the distinction between the literary and scientific mind was not so clearly defined. In any event, those who took the first view could now be informed that the Committee included, in the person of M. Lugones, a true poet ; to those who preferred the second view, it could be said, quoting M. Lugones once more, that he served to demonstrate how it was possible to combine and even almost to make one literary and scientific qualifications.

The Committee also welcomed M. Einstein, both as an old and as a new colleague. He had been appointed a member of the Committee, just as the other members had been, without requesting the appointment. He had returned to the Committee at his own request, having wished to become a member of it. He therefore doubly belonged to it. The Committee was happy and proud to count among its members a savant of world-wide reputation. It would perhaps be permitted to one who had lived for many months in close contact with his work to say that this work was one of the most powerful efforts which had ever been made to free the human mind from the limitations of human knowledge. Having first interpreted, in an unexpected manner, the work of the great savant Lorentz in the field of electro-magnetism, M. Einstein turned to the theory of gravitation. He had employed in this field an entirely new method which would doubtless be the prelude to further discoveries and which consisted in a representation of facts which was independent of any individual point of view. The miracle was that this theory, the difficulties of which might well discourage professional savants and philosophers, had inflamed the whole world. M. Einstein seemed, indeed, to have converted a part of humanity to these lofty speculations. It was to be hoped that he would be able to accomplish yet another conversion. Even during the war, and even before the war, his conception of the relations between peoples might not have been very far removed from the ideal of the League of Nations. If by his presence on a Committee of the League of Nations he succeeded in attracting to this ideal all those who had been interested in his lofty speculations, he would have rendered a new and very great service to humanity.

The Chairman ended by paying a tribute to the competence and devotion with which M. Oprescu, the new Secretary of the Committee, was fulfilling his duties. It was also fortunate for the Committee that M. de Halecki, in the capacity of expert, had been able to continue his co-operation with it.

M. LUGONES, in the name of the Argentine Republic and of the countries of Latin America, warmly thanked the Chairman for his welcome. He reminded the Committee that in the tragic hours of the war it had been possible to see that a loyal inhabitant of the Argentine could also be a good Frenchman. The encyclopædic knowledge attributed to him was nothing more than the inexhaustible curiosity of a journalist. It was for this reason that he was the disciple at the same time of M. Bergson, Mme Curie, M. Einstein and M. Lorentz. He would do all that lay within his limited powers to co-operate in the work of the Committee, which was assured of achieving good work under such a distinguished Chairman.

M. CASARES stated that he had in the previous year associated himself with the desire expressed by the Spanish-American nations that a representative of their cultures should be a member of the Committee, for these cultures were the splendid results of Spanish civilisation and possessed original characteristics. He welcomed, therefore, the appointment of M. Lugones and congratulated the Committee on having secured the co-operation of so eminent a person.

M. EINSTEIN thanked the Chairman for his words of welcome and said that he would be a faithful servant of the work undertaken by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

115. Appointment of the Chairman and Vice-Chairman.

The CHAIRMAN asked the Committee to appoint its Chairman and Vice-Chairman in accordance with the Rules of Procedure.

M. LORENTZ said, in the name of his colleagues, that it was not necessary to take a ballot, because it was certain that all the votes would be cast for M. Bergson.

The CHAIRMAN thanked his colleagues for this proof of their confidence, but thought it was better that, as a general rule, a vote should be taken by ballot.

M. LORENTZ proposed, in the name of the Committee, that the rule should be adopted, but not followed in the present case.

M. Bergson and Professor Gilbert Murray were unanimously confirmed in their offices as Chairman and Vice-Chairman.

116. Appointment of Sir J. C. Bose as a Member of the Committee.

The SECRETARY informed the Committee that Sir J. C. Bose had been invited by the Council, in accordance with a decision taken on March 15th, 1924, to serve on the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. Sir J. C. Bose had accepted the invitation, but by an unfortunate combination of circumstances his letter of convocation had arrived too late to allow him to take part in the work of the fourth session of the Committee.

Professor Gilbert MURRAY reminded the Committee of the remarkable researches which had been carried out by Sir J. C. Bose with regard to the sensibility of plants. The Committee could congratulate itself that he had accepted the Council's invitation.

The CHAIRMAN associated himself with these remarks. He had himself had the opportunity of assisting in several experiments of Sir J. C. Bose on what the latter considered to be the sensibility of plants. The new member of the Committee had invented some very ingenious apparatus in connection with his experiments, and his discoveries might be of interest not only to botanists but also to philosophers.

117. Travelling Facilities for Students : Communication from the International Confederation of Students.

The SECRETARY read a letter in which the International Confederation of Students asked the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to support the representations made to the Governments by the national students' unions with a view to obtaining reductions of the railway fares and the prices of passport visas.

The SECRETARY recalled the fact that the Governments had already granted very considerable reductions of the railway tariffs for students travelling in groups. The last number of the *Bulletin of the International University Information Office* contained a list of the countries which had granted these reductions. With regard to passport visas, similar facilities had been granted in certain countries.

The CHAIRMAN wondered whether the students wished to obtain some new concessions — for example, reductions for individual students when travelling.

After an exchange of views, *it was decided* to inform the International Confederation that it could rely on the sympathy of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which was ready to support any definite demand submitted to it.

118. Establishment of New National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation.

The SECRETARY informed the Committee that National Committees had been established in Belgium and Switzerland and that a new member had been appointed by the Brazilian National Committee.

The British Government had expressed its regret that it was not in a position either to take the initiative in establishing a National Committee in Great Britain nor to give financial support to the Committee when it was established. The British Government recommended the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to get in touch with the Universities Bureau of the British Empire.

Professor Gilbert MURRAY said that he had foreseen a reply of this nature. The Bureau in question consisted of the vice-chancellors of the universities of the country. It might be in a position to render service to the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations but could hardly fulfil the work of a National Committee. He proposed to arrive at an understanding with the Bureau, which could increase its numbers by co-opting several qualified persons.

The Committee decided to entrust Professor Gilbert Murray with the task of arriving at an understanding with the Universities Bureau of the British Empire, it being understood that university representation on the National Committee should not be too strong.

M. LUCHAIRE, in the absence of Senator Ruffini, informed the Committee semi-officially that the Italian National Committee was almost constituted, on the basis of the Leonardo da Vinci Society in Rome.

In regard to the French National Committee, it was established under the chairmanship of M. Henry de Jouvenel and consisted of about 30 representative persons.

119. Relations with the Catholic Union of International Studies.

The SECRETARY informed the Committee that an International Catholic Committee on Intellectual Co-operation had been formed.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that it had been decided to encourage the establishment of National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation. It was now necessary to decide on the relations to be established with the Catholic Union of International Studies, which had created an International Catholic Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, entrusted with the task of following the work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations.

M. de REYNOLD, Vice-Chairman of the Catholic Union of International Studies, said that the Union had established an International Catholic Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in order to show with what interest the work of the Committee of the League was followed in Catholic circles and to unite the Catholic forces of the intellectual and university world. The Union would be glad to establish relations with the Committee of the League, and, if it had a religious character, it had also a scientific one, which was in the traditions of Catholicism. There was here a force which would have to be taken into consideration. The Catholic Union of International Studies was prepared to communicate to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation the result of its researches and would be glad to see the establishment of scientific relations with that Committee.

The CHAIRMAN said that he had no doubt that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would be glad to establish relations with the Catholic Union on Intellectual Studies, which, it must be understood, could not, from any point of view, be likened to the National Committees.

M. DESTREE was of the opinion that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should refuse no serious offer of collaboration, but a clear distinction should be made between the Catholic Union and the National Committees. There was every advantage in accepting offers of goodwill and in establishing relations to-day with the Catholic Union, and to-morrow, perhaps, with a Protestant or Jewish union, or with an association of a political, royalist or communist character, always provided that guarantees of serious work were given. It should be clearly understood, however, that these organisations formed no part of the framework consisting of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and the National Committees.

Mme CURIE declared herself entirely in agreement with the observations of M. Destrée and pointed out that the National Committees had no corporate political or religious character.

The Committee decided that, each time relations were established with a national or international association, the difference which existed between these associations and the National Committees should be emphasised.

120. Liaison with the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers.

The SECRETARY read the following letter, dated July 11th, 1924, from M. Gallié, Secretary-General of the Confederation.

“ To the Secretary-General.

“ The Council of the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers is concerned with the particular position of intellectual workers within the League of Nations. An ostracism, which nothing can justify, has excluded them from a complete organisation established under the form of an International Labour Office.

“ The President of the Governing Body and the Director of the International Labour Office have shown the greatest sympathy with the organising movement of the intellectual workers, but their immediate admission to this Office seems to give rise to great difficulties.

“ In order to repair, to some extent, the omission in the Covenant, according to the terms of which, intellectual workers are not recognised, the League of Nations has established the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which has, with great breadth of view, entered into relations with the Confederation of Intellectual Workers and has been ready to welcome a certain number of its suggestions.

“ The International Confederation claims the absolute right of the intellectual workers to have their official representatives in the International Labour Office or in a special organisation of the League of Nations.

“ Being aware, however, of the fact that this claim can only be realised slowly, the Council of the Intellectual Confederation has decided to limit its claims for the moment to effective official collaboration with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

“ I have therefore the honour, as Secretary-General, to transmit to you the desire of the Council of the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers that delegates should be chosen from amongst its members officially representing the International Confederation in connection with the work of your Committee, at least in the capacity of experts. ”

The CHAIRMAN recalled the services rendered to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation by the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers. It was especially as a result of suggestions made by this body that a Sub-Committee on Scientific Property had been established. If the Ruffini scheme succeeded, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would have obtained one of the most important results to which it could aspire.

The present request of the Secretary-General of the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers, who had several times appeared before the Committee or its Sub-Committee, both of which had been very happy to hear him, was that this Confederation should be officially and permanently represented in connection with the work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

The Chairman opened the discussion on this request.

In the course of the discussion the Committee unanimously recognised the services rendered by the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers, whose work it was following with the greatest sympathy.

The different aspects of the question were considered objectively.

According to the different points of view which might be adopted, the professional and corporate character of the Confederation of Intellectual Workers could be emphasised, or, on the other hand, its intellectual and moral character. As a result, the Confederation might be connected either with the International Labour Office or with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Experience had shown that to connect the Confederation with the International Labour Office would give rise to great difficulties because it would necessitate a revision of Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles. It was not, moreover, for the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to express an opinion on the negotiations which had taken place between the Confederation of Intellectual Workers and the International Labour Office.

In support of establishing connection between the Confederation of Intellectual Workers and the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, it could be argued more especially that relations had existed from the beginning between the two institutions and that there was a kind of parallelism between them, since the Confederation defended the interests of the intellectual workers.

An exchange of views then took place regarding the opposition which was sometimes mentioned as between intellectual and manual workers. Both together constituted the world of workers.

With regard to the definite question of the representation of the Confederation on the Committee of Intellectual Co-operation, the Committee noted that it was appointed by the Council of the League and that it had no power to co-opt new members.

As regards experts and assessors, the Committee reached the conclusion that they should be appointed when required and according to the nature of the questions to be solved.

Finally, the Committee requested M. Destrée to draw up a draft resolution or letter expressing the gratitude of the Committee and the hope that the Confederation would continue to assist the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, where a member of the Confederation would always be welcome.

121. Report by M. Marinescu on the Work of the Third Session of the Committee.

The Committee took note of a report by M. Marinescu¹, of the Roumanian National Committee, on the work of the Paris session of the Committee. M. Marinescu's report had been read at a public meeting of the Roumanian Academy.

122. Donation from the Rockefeller Foundation to German Libraries.

The SECRETARY read a letter from Mr. Fulcher informing the Committee that the Rockefeller Foundation had presented the German libraries with 400 English and American medical journals, six copies of each journal being sent.

The Committee took note of this communication.

¹ This document is retained in the Archives of the Secretariat.

SECOND MEETING

held at Geneva on Friday, July 25th, 1924, at 3 p.m.

123. Publicity of Meetings of the Committee.

The CHAIRMAN reminded the Committee that at the end of each meeting the press received a summary of the proceedings. He asked if the Committee was of the opinion that a further step should be taken and that representatives of the press should be admitted to the meetings.

Professor Gilbert MURRAY was in favour of members of the press being admitted, because they would then interest themselves in the work of the Committee. There were in the Committee a certain number of eminent persons who were well known to everybody, but the Committee as such was not well known. If, by means of the press, public opinion could be interested in the work of the Committee, the latter would find it easier to obtain the external help which it required.

Mme. CURIE said that she personally was opposed to the admission of the press. It was necessary that the members of the Committee should be perfectly free, as had hitherto been the case, to discuss questions quietly amongst themselves. In the event, however, of the other members of the Committee being of the opinion that the press should be admitted, it would be necessary to ask the press to observe certain rules. In order to ensure that the opinion of a member of the Committee would not be distorted, the reporters should be asked to submit to him the passage of the article which concerned him.

M. LUGONES said he was in favour of the admission of the press. He himself was a journalist, and he knew what beneficial results the press could achieve and recalled the fact that it represented one of the forms of intellectual co-operation.

M. DE REYNOLD wished to maintain the tradition of not admitting the press regularly. He thought, like Mme. Curie, that it was desirable that the members of the Committee should continue to work in an intimate atmosphere and that they should avoid the temptation of speaking to a public. In view of the fact that it would be impossible to obtain adherence to rules, as had been proposed by Mme. Curie, the Committee should continue to work in private.

M. DESTRÉE said that he shared this point of view. The members of the Committee would run the risk of unconsciously assuming an unnatural attitude before representatives of the press, just as if they were in front of a camera. The discussions would become longer and would lose in cordiality. It was none the less true that the press should be interested in the work of the Committee by publications and by propaganda, which could be conducted by each member in his own country.

Professor Gilbert MURRAY withdrew his proposal.

M. LUGONES said that he could not withdraw his proposal, but he accepted his defeat in good part.

The CHAIRMAN, summarising the opinion of the Committee, asked the Secretariat to continue to give the press as full summaries as possible. The Secretariat could even give to those journalists who required them supplementary explanations as to the discussions of the Committee.

124. Enquiry into the Conditions of Intellectual Life in the Various Countries.

(a) *Report on Brazil by M. de Castro.*

M. DE CASTRO recalled the statement which he had made last year with regard to intellectual life in Brazil. At that time he had not been able to furnish the Committee with statistics. Since then he had obtained them and had drawn up a report which he would hand to the Chairman and of which he would give a brief summary.

He wished first of all to say how glad he was to have M. Lugones at his side and to have been able to note that morning, in listening to the words of welcome of the Chairman, that this eminent representative of Argentine civilisation enjoyed the same reputation in Europe as in America. It was useful for the Committee, which mainly consisted of savants, to have among its members a great-hearted poet such as M. Lugones.

He then gave the following statistics with regard to the development of intellectual life in Brazil. The number of libraries had increased from 304 in 1915 to 1,509. The number of periodicals had increased from 1,639 in 1915 to 2,324 in 1922. These few figures would serve to illustrate the important and continuous development of intellectual life in Brazil.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. DE CASTRO for conducting this very interesting enquiry in circumstances of considerable difficulty owing to the fact that such a large country was involved.

(b) *General Report by M. de Reynold.*

M. DE REYNOLD said that he had been entrusted by the Committee of experts with the submission of the general report on the enquiry. In addition to this general report, he had

drawn up a certain number of reports on special points with the investigation of which he had been entrusted.

He recalled the fact that the Committee had decided upon the enquiry during its first session in August 1922. In taking this decision the Committee had had a double motive. It wished to obtain information as to the position of intellectual life after the war and as to the dangers which threatened intellectual life and, in consequence, civilisation. Secondly, the Committee had wished to know on what forces it could rely for assistance in order to establish intellectual co-operation.

A Committee of five experts (M. Castella, M. de Halecki, M. Luchaire, M. Reverdin and M. de Reynold) had therefore been appointed to conduct the enquiry. M. William Martin, representing the International Labour Office, had also been entrusted with special enquiries regarding the economic situation of certain groups of intellectual workers.

The scope of the original plan of enquiry had been very wide, in all probability too wide. No common method had been followed since the experts had wished to make investigations in all directions. Each member had concerned himself with a certain number of countries. Thus, in Europe, M. Luchaire had particularly concerned himself with the countries of Latin Europe, M. de Halecki with the Central and Eastern countries, M. de Reynold with Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and the Scandinavian countries.

It was decided that the results of each enquiry should be published separately, which would facilitate their classification and distribution.

The experts conducting the enquiry had had very limited financial resources at their disposal. They had also had insufficient time owing to the fact that they had had to carry on their professions at the same time ; it might be said, however, that, in spite of the great disproportion between the resources at their disposal and the importance of the work, the results were very extensive. Forty pamphlets had been published, making a total of 600 to 700 pages. About twenty pamphlets were in manuscript and awaiting publication.

The experts who had conducted the enquiry had met with some disappointments. They had had to work mainly on the basis of replies which they had received from their correspondents. It might be said that, while many replies had been received from new countries which were interested in stating their difficulties and the efforts they were making, the replies received from other countries had, as a general rule, been much less satisfactory and far less numerous.

Considered as a whole, however, the enquiry had led to practical results.

It had resulted, first of all, in the publication or the preparation of a considerable number of reports no doubt of unequal value but which, considered as a whole, gave a comparatively complete view of intellectual life after the war, at all events as far as Europe was concerned.

The enquiry had also enabled certain countries to state their wants and to explain their efforts. This was the case in Central and Eastern Europe, which had been the province of M. de Halecki. Finally, as a result of the enquiry, a considerable part of the intellectual world had given its support to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and, in consequence, to the League of Nations.

It had especially rendered possible the organisation in the Central and Eastern European countries of National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation. These had been formed almost spontaneously in order to reply to the enquiries made by the Committee and had become important organs of mutual assistance ; their utility had been so well demonstrated that the countries in Western Europe were following the example given to them by the countries of Central Europe.

As a result of the enquiry, which, as should not be forgotten, had so far only dealt with European countries, a sort of map of the intellectual life of Europe could now be constructed. In this map there would first of all be " black zones ", that was to say, countries where intellectual life was very seriously affected (Germany and Russia). M. de Reynold had made numerous enquiries in Germany. The reports which he had drawn up served to show that the position of intellectual life there was very grave and that the balance between Latin civilisation and Germanic civilisation, upon which European civilisation had been based, was now destroyed. The fact that no enquiry had been possible in the case of Russia was sufficient to show how grave the situation was. Russia had withdrawn itself from Europe, and this was a very grave danger to civilisation.

There was then the zone which might be called the " grey zone ". This consisted of the countries where intellectual life was seriously threatened, mainly those countries which had risen on the ruins of the great European empires. They had much difficulty in obtaining the essentials for their work, but it might be said, in spite of the difficulties of all kinds with which they had to contend, that intellectual life there was developing and European civilisation thereby being enriched. It might also be noted that in Austria, Hungary and Bulgaria there was a will to preserve that which was essential, namely, the spirit of intellectual life. This was an encouraging fact.

There was also a somewhat lighter zone where intellectual workers and, particularly, free intellectual workers, that was to say, those who were not at the same time officials, could only continue their work with difficulty, owing to the increase in the cost of living.

There was, finally, the white zone, that was to say, those countries which had not been touched by the war, but even there, at any rate so far as Europe was concerned, the intellectual workers were suffering, owing to economic difficulties.

Briefly, there were general evils which affected intellectual life, and an enumeration of them would be found in the pamphlet of M. Luchaire, which was too modestly entitled " Observations on Several Problems of International Intellectual Organisation ". It might be said, in a word, that intellectual life was suffering from a wave of materialism and utilitarianism.

It was at the expense of intellectual life that the main economies were effected in the budgets of most States. The problem was, therefore, to re-establish the balance between intellectual life and the other branches of human activity, for civilisation could be defined as harmony between the different forms of human activity. The supreme object of the Committee should be to render to the intellect the place which properly belonged to it.

It was necessary for the League of Nations to be informed with regard to the existing state of affairs, and, thanks to the enquiry, it now possessed information. The enquiry would now be limited to general and international questions, and, if the Committee agreed, the enquiry would be limited in scope but would be continued.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. DE REYNOLD for his very interesting statement. His report, as in the case of all the other reports which he had drawn up, was based on a considerable documentation.

M. LORENTZ said that he had heard the statement of M. de Reynold with very great interest. He recalled the fact that last year he had expressed some doubt as to the results of the enquiry. Perhaps, as had already been pointed out by M. de Reynold, the desired end had not been attained in some of the special reports, but they formed an interesting whole. Thanks were due to M. de Reynold and his colleagues, to whose zeal and devotion M. Lorentz paid a tribute. They had courageously undertaken an almost superhuman task.

It seemed now that the enquiry might have been confined to the countries in what M. de Reynold had called "the black zone" and the "grey zone" and to the countries which were a little "lighter in colour". It was necessary that the League of Nations should realise, as M. de Reynold had said, the great danger to civilisation if the disproportion between the intellectual life and other forms of activity was maintained.

Were there any practical suggestions as the result of the enquiry? Were there urgent cases requiring intervention?

M. DE REYNOLD said that M. de Halecki was particularly qualified to answer these questions, since he had summarised in a general report the practical conclusions which had occurred to him as a result of his extensive study of what might be called "the grey zone".

(c) *General Report by M. de Halecki on Conditions in Central and Eastern Europe.*

M. DE HALECKI recalled the fact that he had been particularly entrusted with the study of the Baltic countries, Poland, the countries of the Little Entente, Hungary and the Balkans. In spite of the diversity of languages and tradition there was something common to all these countries. If the map of Europe in 1815 were examined, it would be seen that none of these countries existed at that time. To-day twelve countries of varying sizes existed the intellectual life of which had sometimes been hindered for centuries but which was starting a new life.

In view of the fact that these countries were little known, it seemed necessary above all to obtain statistical data. These data had first of all been obtained by sending out questionnaires; later, they had been obtained more easily on account of the active collaboration of the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation which had been established in the various countries. Thus, at first, it had only been possible to obtain from Latvia one single reply to a questionnaire, but, after the establishment of the Latvian National Committee, replies, and even special reports, had arrived in entirely satisfactory numbers. Further, the delegates of the National Committees had been able at the last session of the International Committee at Paris to furnish valuable information. Certain general points at issue had been made clear by the documentation thus received, and for this reason it had been possible to replace special pamphlets by a general report.

M. de Halecki summarised the third part of his general report which contained the practical conclusions asked for by M. Lorenz. The evils from which intellectual life suffered were clearly very largely of an economic and financial character. It should, however, be noted that the replies to the questionnaire very seldom contained requests for grants. This was due to the fact that in certain countries, notably in Poland, the financial situation had improved during the last months; moreover, the proper pride of the correspondents prevented their suggesting anything in the nature of alms. From the financial point of view the position seemed to be most grave in Hungary. Nevertheless, the fact was to be noted that new schools for higher education had been established in this country.

Even though no direct financial aid had been requested, it was, nevertheless, desirable to assist indirectly by studying the following possibilities:

- (1) The establishment of an international fund for loans and credits.
- (2) The question of travelling facilities for professors. It was necessary to recall the fact that the Assembly had taken steps in this direction by asking for travelling facilities for students travelling in groups.
- (3) The establishment of international funds for scholarships for professors and students. It did not seem possible to carry out this suggestion at the moment, but the solution of this problem would be highly advantageous.

It was also advisable to recall the part played by the national offices of the universities in certain countries in Western Europe. These national offices did not exist in Eastern Europe, and it would be useful for the countries of Eastern Europe to be able to benefit from the experience of the Western countries. M. de Halecki had suggested in his report that the Directors of existing national offices should meet the representatives of the National Committees of countries where the establishment of such offices was contemplated.

No steps taken on the initiative of the Committee had seemed to be of greater interest to the countries of Central and Eastern Europe than the establishment of the International University Information Office, which replaced the national offices to some extent in countries which did not as yet possess them. It would be desirable that the International Office should be developed, because it seemed called upon to render the greatest services.

It was equally desirable that the Committee should once more, for example, in 1925, hear the representatives of the National Committees, for the countries of Eastern and Central Europe were suffering from being too little known. They wished to establish closer relations with Western Europe. International congresses meeting in Eastern Europe might be encouraged, international courses, especially vacation courses, might be facilitated there, and the institutions in the Western countries which gave information as to the countries of Central and Eastern Europe might be developed. The same should apply in respect of institutions established for a similar purpose in Eastern Europe.

It was equally desirable that the plan for an international scientific review should be realised, this review to deal particularly with analytical bibliography and to include summaries in a language in general use, which should make known the work of savants who wrote in a language which was little known.

In view of the fact that the International Committee had no considerable financial resources at its disposal, M. de Halecki also declared himself in favour of direct relations between the National Committees. These relations already existed, for example, between the Swiss and Polish Committees. The International Committee and the League of Nations could assist the National Committees merely by granting them technical facilities.

M. de Halecki concluded by remarking that the evils from which the countries of Central and Eastern Europe suffered differed in quantity but not in quality from those affecting the intellectual life in other countries. If the crisis were particularly grave in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, it was due to the fact that the best brains were needed there to reconstruct the political and economic life, and that it was only with difficulty that the intellectuals could devote themselves to pure science. To remedy this evil the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations had approved a draft resolution on the subject of post-graduate scientific research.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. de Halecki for the very great devotion and industry with which he had performed his work.

(d) *Reports by M. Luchaire.*

M. LUCHAIRE regretted that it had been necessary to restrict the scope of the enquiry, and he hoped that the Committee would one day have an adequate organisation at its disposal possessing material resources which corresponded with its needs.

He drew attention to the report, among those which he had drawn up, which referred to the crises in connection with the recruiting of scientific personnel. This was a grave question with which the Committee should deal. The future of science would be endangered if the younger generation did not undertake the study of the pure sciences. M. Luchaire had made several practical proposals on this subject.

In another report referring to the state of the studies being carried on in various countries with regard to contemporary nations, he had drawn up statistics of all courses which enabled students to become more or less familiar with foreign nations.

In a report referring to the statistics of expenditure on education, M. Luchaire had endeavoured to examine the largest possible number of budgets, in spite of difficulties which were mainly due to the fact that the budgets of the different nations were not all drawn up on the same plan. Although this work had necessarily been incomplete, it was possible to deduce the fact that a great effort had been made in certain countries to ease the economic difficulties from which intellectual life was suffering. Especially in Great Britain, the expenditure on education had been increased in a greater proportion than that required by the increase in the cost of living.

M. Luchaire remarked in this connection that it would be desirable if the States would concern themselves with the drawing-up of statistics relating to intellectual matters. He drew attention to the example set by the French Government, which had just set aside a certain sum to be used in connection with this question.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Luchaire for having been good enough to prepare reports which were so interesting, so varied, so rich in detail, and which contained synthetic and philosophical conclusions.

(e) *Reports by M. Castella on Switzerland and Luxemburg.*

M. CASTELLA said that he had continued his studies on intellectual life in Switzerland. He had drawn up two new reports, one referring to higher technical education, and the other to higher commercial education, and he had begun an enquiry referring to the Swiss Federation of Intellectual Workers.

It could be established that it was not so much a lack of financial resources as the existence of materialistic tendencies which was harming intellectual life in Switzerland. In his reports on higher technical and commercial education he had drawn attention to the tendency which now existed of giving access to the schools for higher education to persons whose general

education would formerly have been considered inadequate. It had even occurred that students had been admitted to the Faculty of Law who had no knowledge of Latin.

He had also observed in the course of his enquiry relating to the Swiss Federation of Intellectual Workers that the idea of such a federation was not as highly developed as it should be. Great difficulties were encountered in securing the co-operation of intellectual workers.

He had also drawn up a general report on Luxemburg in which he had been able to mention a very welcome reaction against the reform, governing the qualifications for the Bachelor's Degree, which had been carried out in 1908 to the detriment of classical studies.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Castella for his work and the interesting conclusions he had reached.

(f) *Reports by M. Reverdin on the United States and Canada.*

M. REVERDIN recalled the fact that he had been entrusted with an enquiry into intellectual life in the United States. He had published three reports last year, one referring to schools and universities, another to the principal foundations which had as their object the encouragement of intellectual work, and a third on the principal academies and learned societies. He had been in a position this year to draw up a report referring to the sciences in the United States, based on the replies sent to him by thirteen scientists who were specialists in the different sciences, and also on the replies sent to him by scientific societies. This report only referred to the physical and natural sciences. M. Reverdin had started to collect information regarding the moral sciences.

In addition Mr. Leland had been good enough to undertake an enquiry on his behalf into the historical sciences, and Mr. Richardson an enquiry into American libraries.

He had also extracted from the official replies to the questionnaire given by the provinces of Canada and transmitted by the Canadian Government everything which concerned intellectual and scientific life in its highest aspect.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Reverdin for the important work which he had undertaken.

(g) *Report by M. William Martin on the Position of Engineers and Chemists.*

M. William MARTIN submitted his memorandum on the position of engineers and chemists. He had endeavoured to make a study in his memorandum of the material position of intellectual workers who were connected with industry. He had studied their position in a great number of countries and as far as possible in all countries. The idea of drawing up this memorandum had been suggested to the International Labour Office in 1921 by an organisation of French engineers. These intellectual collaborators in industry formed, so to speak, the link between manual workers and intellectual workers.

As the issue of questionnaires had only led to very scanty results, the International Labour Office had adopted the method of private correspondence with the specialists to whom the subject might be of interest. Questions had been put to them with regard to the problems within their province; among the replies received, sixty-four, coming from twenty-two countries, had been fairly complete and had made it possible, with the assistance of the fairly considerable resources of the library of the International Labour Office, to draw up a memorandum referring to about 30 countries.

There was one important omission in this memorandum. It had dealt very little with the question of Germany owing to the limitations of the replies received from that country. These limitations were attributable to the fact that the organisations of German technicians declined to be described by the word "intellectual".

The following three ideas constantly reappeared in the replies received:

(1) The intellectual workers in industry suffered from their assimilation with the manual workers, especially as regards their working hours. This assimilation might possibly be necessary in view of the organisation of labour, but it was equally true that it made it difficult for intellectual workers in industry to continue their personal researches.

(2) The intellectual workers in industry in all countries were very interested in the protection of their professional titles. This question was a very delicate one in view of the fact that it was connected with the question of freedom in education.

(3) The intellectual workers were interested in the question of the protection of their rights in connection with inventions which they might make. They were, in point of fact, generally deprived of the results of their technical researches.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. William Martin for the very important work which he had undertaken for the Committee.

125. Liaison with the International Federation of Intellectual Workers: Reply of the Committee to the Confederation.

M. DESTRÉE submitted a draft reply *which was adopted after several amendments proposed by various members of the Committee (Annex 1).*

THIRD MEETING

held at Geneva on Saturday, July 26th, 1924, at 10 a.m.

126. Publicity of Meetings of the Committee (*continuation of the discussion*).

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that it had been decided at the preceding meeting to continue to give to the press as complete summaries as possible of the discussions and to instruct the Secretariat to give those journalists who asked for it additional information as to the discussions of the Committee.

He had, however, received a complaint made by the International Association of Journalists accredited to the League of Nations. This Association greatly deplored the decision taken by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, as it would deprive that Committee of much publicity and would prevent journalists from fulfilling their professional duties.

M. DESTRÉE thought that the letter in question amounted to a protest against the decision to hold no public meetings. He had prepared a draft reply, in which he had endeavoured to reconcile the decision taken by the Committee with the legitimate demands of the journalists.

During an exchange of views, the Committee adopted certain guiding rules of procedure and reviewed various possible solutions of the problem.

The Committee maintained the principle that, as a general rule, its meetings should not be held in public, for nothing should interfere with the free exchange of views in the intimate atmosphere of privacy.

On the other hand, the Committee recognised that an effort should be made to give satisfaction to the legitimate demand of the journalists to be more completely and more directly informed of what had passed than could be effected merely by means of a simple and short communiqué.

The following practical proposals were examined in their various aspects :

The opening and closing meetings might be held in public. This solution seemed to meet the wishes of the journalists, who could thus come into contact with members of the Committee. At the opening meeting an examination of the reports of experts, which had already been closely studied, would take place. The closing meeting would be devoted entirely to a summing-up of the work of the session by one of the members of the Committee. The experience of 1923 had shown that the closing meeting ought not to be devoted to a series of disconnected statements on various questions but that one general summary of the whole work should be made.

A small Sub-Committee might perhaps be instructed to give information to the press. This solution would enable the journalists to receive all desirable information, but its drawback would be that only a small number of the Committee's members would thereby be enabled to come into contact with the press.

The admission of the press for a short time at the end of each meeting or at the end of the session would have two advantages : first, that the Committee would not be hampered in its discussions by the presence of journalists, and, secondly, that the journalists would have an opportunity to approach members of the Committee and thus obtain direct information day by day on the progress of the Committee's work.

In conclusion, it was decided to abandon the policy of holding public meetings and to inform the press that it would be admitted at the end of each meeting.

127. Establishment of an International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation: Proposal of the French Government.

The CHAIRMAN read the following letter, dated July 24th, 1924, which he had just received from the French Minister of Education and Fine Arts :

SIR,

“ The appeal which you have lately made in the name of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and in which you request the assistance of all nations in the work undertaken by the Committee, has been, I hope, favourably received. If it be true that co-operation, organised on generous lines between nations for the benefit of the progress of knowledge and intellectual aims, necessarily implies a closer union of the mind, and that that closer union is the first condition of peace and concord between men, then the success of this work is of interest not only to the scientific world and to the world of letters and arts but also to all mankind.

“ The work of your Committee has been followed in France with warm sympathy. Both my predecessors and myself in the Ministry of Education would have thought ourselves failing in our duty if we had not paid most careful attention to your Committee's work.

“ An examination of the Minutes and resolutions of your Committee has enabled me clearly to understand the imperative reasons which underlie your appeal. The members of the Committee, as well as yourself, have examined for more than two years the organisation in all its aspects of intellectual work in the world. You have noted all the points, and they are numerous, in regard to which a better organisation of this work by means of a better understanding between the nations would

make this work far easier to establish and far more fruitful in effect. You have formulated the most detailed and most encouraging suggestions regarding the establishment of international co-operation in all the various branches of knowledge.

"Your Committee has, however, been compelled to confine itself to suggestions, since it has no means at its disposal to carry out to the end the investigation of each scheme and give it practical realisation. To-day, if I may be allowed to say so, your Committee is in the position of an inventor who has completed the plans of an admirable machine which will prove of the greatest benefit to humanity, but who has neither the money nor the necessary equipment to make that invention a practical reality.

"In the name of the French Government, and in the conviction that I am the interpreter on this point of the whole of French public opinion, I desire to offer to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations the practical means for transforming its plans into a beautiful and concrete reality. The League of Nations has undertaken, for the relief of humanity, a series of schemes each one of which has been designed to meet one of the essential needs of the world of to-day. I believe I am right in thinking that, for all practical purposes, these schemes are all in a similar position. No resources are available for any of them which are proportionate to the extent of the miseries which these schemes are designed to cure or the benefits which they are intended to produce. A vast field is therefore opened to the generosity of States, institutions or individuals. France is not ignorant of any of the sufferings or imperfections which stand in the way of progress. It is an old tradition, however, that France is particularly sensitive to the ills which beset intellectual work. It can, therefore, be understood that France would take the first step towards a practical solution of these problems and would show herself ready to lay the foundations of a new international edifice upon the ground prepared by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations.

"In 1905 the Italian Government, for which the problems of the development of agricultural production present vital interest, made an offer to the nations to establish at Rome an International Institute of Agriculture which has since carried on its duties under the control of the delegates of the various nations.

"The French Government to-day makes an offer to the nations to establish at Paris an International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation.

"This offer, which is similar to that of the Italian Government, is the more easily made because, since 1905, a new factor of great significance, which encourages and facilitates the conception of all great international undertakings, has arisen. I refer to the existence of the League of Nations. It is through the intermediary of the League that the French Government will offer the necessary money and accommodation for the foundation and proper working of the future International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. The French Government will be happy to prove in a practical and definite manner its profound attachment to the principles for which the League of Nations stands and its ardent wish to contribute with it, and through it, to the peace of the world.

"I therefore ask you to lay before the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation this proposal of the French Government, which, I feel sure, will meet with the approval of the French Parliament.

"Further, I ask you, as French member of the Committee, to draw up and submit to it the plan of organisation of the future Institution. This plan must correspond with the essential needs of the cause which your Committee upholds and of which all the details are known to it. In my view, the future institution should be the executive instrument of your Committee. Just as it will be for your Committee to direct this institution, it rests now with your Committee to draw up its plan of work. It will be in accordance with the suggestions which the Committee will make that I shall formulate the proposals which the representatives of France will make, at some future date, to the Council of the League of Nations.

(Signed) F. ALBERT."

M. RUFFINI thanked the French Government for the reference made in its letter to the establishment of the International Institute of Agriculture now carrying out its duties at Rome under the direction of the delegates of the various nations. The proposal which the French Government now made would decide the future of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. That Committee had, up to the present, felt that it was building on a shifting foundation. The French Government now offered it solid ground for future work. France should be congratulated for the decisive step which she had taken in the direction of progress.

M. LUGONES submitted that the proposal contained in the French Government's historic letter should be accepted by acclamation.

Professor Gilbert MURRAY paid a tribute to the French Government, which had now, by an act of splendid generosity, added another mark of sympathy to all those which it had already shown towards the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

The Committee was deeply grateful. It was, however, clear that, though the French proposal would undoubtedly be of the greatest service to the Committee, it gave rise to various questions which were not within the scope of the powers of the Committee. The proposal must, in fact, be submitted to the Council.

M. LORENTZ paid a tribute to the noble action of the French Government and people. The gratitude and admiration of the Committee were all the greater in that the sufferings of France were not yet at an end and since her present position forced her to administer the public revenues economically.

M. DE REYNOLD associated himself, in the name of Switzerland, with this tribute. The noble action of France was in conformity with its great tradition of idealism. It was not possible to emphasise sufficiently the absolute disinterestedness of France, which offered the necessary funds for the establishment of an international Institution but left it to the League of Nations to organise this Institution on a universal basis. The deepest consciousness of Switzerland, a small country which had to fight hard for its material existence, would applaud the generous initiative of the French nation, which opened a door to wider activity on the part of the Committee.

M. DE CASTRO recalled the fact that France had given a magnificent palace to Brazil at the time of the Exhibition in Rio de Janeiro. The noble action which it had performed to-day was in conformity with the French tradition.

He proposed that the letter of the French Government should be inserted in the Minutes.

M. DESTRÉE, in the name of his country, thanked France for having consecrated by its generous offer the endeavours of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. This offer was entirely disinterested, since France had put its resources at the disposal of all nations. It was to be hoped that this action would be infectious and that so noble an example would be followed.

M. MILLIKAN paid a tribute of sympathy and admiration to the action of France. Although he came from a far distant country and from another continent, he could not but remark that the French proposal gave rise to questions with which the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation had no power to deal. It might no doubt be asked whether this proposal would not result in the transfer of a part of the activities of the League of Nations from Geneva to Paris. It seemed that the Committee should confine itself for the moment to expressing its admiration and its gratitude and refer any decision to the competent organisations.

M. KNOPH shared the gratitude expressed by his colleagues, but agreed with Mr. Millikan that the French proposal gave rise to questions which were not within the province of the Committee. All that the Committee could do was to express its deep gratitude for the noble action of France, which could but assist in the development of the work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

M. DE REYNOLD declared himself in agreement with the observations of principle made by Mr. Millikan and M. Knoph, but he submitted that the Committee could not confine itself to expressing its gratitude, because the French Government had asked it to draw up a plan of organisation which might be submitted to the Council.

M. LUGONES proposed that the offer, the magnificence of which was universally recognised, should be accepted by acclamation. The question when fully regulated could be submitted to the Council and the Assembly.

M. DESTRÉE made a legal reservation. The Committee was not empowered to accept the proposal. It should unanimously thank the French Government and furnish it with the information required as regards the plan of the Institution. It was for the Council and the Assembly to take a decision.

M. EINSTEIN said he agreed with M. Destrée.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that it was with great difficulty that the Committee had obtained a small credit of about 15,000 francs which was necessary for the establishment of the University Information Office. He had pleaded this cause with all his energy before the Supervisory Commission, which had refused to accede to his request. The grant had only been obtained from the Financial (Fourth) Committee of the Assembly after a discussion which lasted for an hour and a half and on the promise being given that no increase in the grant would be asked for for three years.

A Government had now made an offer of credits, which would allow of the Committee leading a less precarious existence. What reception should be given to this offer? If reference were made to the text of the French proposal, it seemed that the reservations made by several members of the Committee had been taken into account. It was clear that the plan in question should be drawn up by the Chairman in agreement with his colleagues. Moreover, it was specifically stated in the letter from the French Government that the contemplated organisation should be the instrument of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. The Committee had need of such an instrument which had so far been lacking and which the French Government offered to create.

The French Government had also suggested a method of procedure, namely, when the French Government received the reply of the Committee and its plan it would lay the question before the Council through the medium of its representative on the Council.

M. EINSTEIN was of the opinion that the French proposal was of the highest importance and could only give rise to feelings of gratitude. The members of the Committee were unanimous in their wish that all European countries should collaborate. Many persons in Germany were of the same opinion, but it must be remembered that many people there mistrusted the League of Nations and reproached it with not being inspired by a really objective and

European spirit. There was reason to fear that the prospect of a transfer to Paris of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would prejudice the efforts of the Committee and would prevent it from attaining those high aims which it pursued. Personally, he did not share this fear and made no proposal, but he asked the Committee to take account of existing circumstances and of the situation from a psychological point of view.

The CHAIRMAN observed that there was no question of transferring the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which would continue to have its seat at Geneva.

Mme. CURIE expressed the hope that the example of goodwill given by the French Government would be imitated. Other institutions could be established in several of the countries to collaborate with the Committee, and thus a world-wide network of intellectual co-operation would be developed.

M. EINSTEIN said that he was entirely satisfied with the explanations given, but he thought that the reply to the French Government should be drawn up in terms which made all misunderstanding impossible.

M. LUGONES explained that the vote by acclamation which he had proposed was intended to express the gratitude of the Committee for the noble action of the French Government.

M. RUFFINI said that he was in agreement with the remarks of M. Einstein. The reply of the Committee should be drawn up with extreme care if the French plan were not to be endangered. This plan would put at the disposal of the Committee an instrument which had so far been lacking, because, in spite of admirable attempts, the Secretariat had worked fortuitously. Certain apprehensions might be removed.

He recalled the fact that the Institute of Agriculture at Rome had not lost its international character in the course of twenty years' activity.

M. LUCHAIRE wished to give the assurance that the French Government had never wished to ask the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to transfer itself to Paris. No Government was better disposed towards the League of Nations than the French Government, which would never have made its proposal if it had been contrary to the interests of the League. It was really a question of establishing an independent and international organisation which would be at the disposal of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. This organisation would be established outside Paris and would become a small international island.

M. DESTRÉE was of the opinion that the Committee should be grateful to M. Einstein for his frank observations. All the members of the Committee were free from narrow and aggressively nationalist considerations, but there would always be, in all countries, extreme nationalists who were ready to interpret wrongly the most generous actions. It was necessary, therefore, to emphasise that the action of France was absolutely disinterested. France had conferred a boon on the nations. The Committee must continue its work and disarm suspicion by the character of its activities.

Professor Gilbert MURRAY thought that it was necessary to state precisely the meaning and scope of the observations which he had made. As the Committee had recognised, it had not, legally speaking, the right to accept the French proposal, because that right belonged to the Council. Moreover, as M. Einstein had very justly said in his straightforward observations, the psychological conditions existing in the different countries had to be taken into consideration, and the greatest care should be taken not to give any ground, even in appearance, for the criticisms of those disposed to attribute political motives to the action of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

After an exchange of views, *the Committee entrusted its Chairman and Vice-Chairman, with the assistance of M. Luchaire, with the preparation of a telegram and draft reply to the French Government, and also of a communiqué to the press.*

FOURTH MEETING

held at Geneva on Saturday, July 26th, 1924, at 3.30 p. m.

128. Establishment of an International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation: Reply to the French Government.

The CHAIRMAN informed the Committee that the Drafting Committee appointed at the last meeting had agreed on the following draft telegram to be sent to the French Government:

“ The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation welcomes with the deepest gratitude the proposal of the French Government, which, if it is accepted by the Council of the League of Nations, will allow of the realisation of a methodical and practical

plan of intellectual co-operation between all nations. It begs to congratulate and to thank the French Minister of Education. ”

The Committee approved the text of this telegram and decided to communicate to the press, subject to authorisation by the French Minister of Education, the letter which he had sent to the Committee.

129. Status of the Correspondents of the Committee.

The Secretary read a memorandum on this question, *which was adopted in the following form :*

“ On September 27th, 1923, the fourth Assembly of the League of Nations expressed the opinion that it would be desirable to enlarge the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation so as to represent not only the various intellectual methods but also the various national cultures, and, having noted the legitimate demands expressed by the delegates of Roumania, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, and Czechoslovakia, by the Spanish-speaking delegates of America, by the Asiatic delegates and by the delegates of Ireland and of the Finno-Ugrian nations, requested the Council to consider the possibility of increasing the number of members on the Committee.

“ At its meeting of December 8th, 1923, after an exchange of views regarding the resolution of the fourth Assembly, the Committee, considering the difficulties in the way of giving complete effect to the resolution of the Assembly, came to the conclusion that the appointment of several new correspondents representing national cultures or groups would be the best way of giving satisfaction to the legitimate wishes which had been expressed or which might be expressed in the future.

“ This collaboration between the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and the representatives of national cultures was partly realised by the presence of the delegates of the National Committees at the meetings of the third session of the Committee. On that occasion it was shown what valuable results such collaboration could give, both for the International Committees and for the different National Committees. Every country, however, does not yet possess a National Committee. The appointment of correspondents would be necessary not only in the countries which have National Committees but also in the other countries the national cultures of which would not otherwise be in touch with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

“ The first duty of the correspondents would be to supply the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation with information on all matters concerning their country or group of countries when similarity of language and civilisation or geographical proximity renders it possible for several nations to be represented by one person.

“ They ought also to keep in touch with the work of the Committee and send their opinion on the questions with which it deals, support the Committee's recommendations in their country, and endeavour to secure their application when this is not precluded by other considerations.

“ The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will appoint a correspondent each time that it considers this to be necessary.

“ The Committee itself determines the nature of the collaboration of its correspondents and summons them to its meetings in a advisory capacity when it considers this to be advisable. In this case, travelling expenses will be paid by the Committee. ”

130. Choice of Correspondents of the Committee.

The Committee decided to adjourn this question to its next session. It asked its members and its Secretary to make proposals with regard to this subject.

131. Budget of the International University Information Office.

The SECRETARY recalled the fact that the budget of the Office had been fixed at 14,920 Swiss francs and included the salary of the shorthand-typist attached to this Office. The Committee had also at its disposal a sum of 14,000 Swiss francs for publications ; in this amount was included the sum of 5,000 Swiss francs required for the publication of the *Index Bibliographicus*.

The Committee decided to entrust to the Directing Board of the Office, subject to approval by the Council, all arrangements to enable the Bulletin of the Office to be published under the best possible conditions.

The Committee would especially study the question of entrusting the *Bulletin* to a publisher and obtaining from him more favourable terms by authorising him to insert certain types of advertisements (especially advertisements of scientific publications).

FIFTH MEETING

held at Geneva on Monday, July 28th, 1924, at 10 a.m.

132. Publicity of Meetings of the Committee (*continuation of the discussion*).

The SECRETARY informed the Committee that the press greatly deplored its decision not to hold public meetings.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that the solution had been adopted on the proposal of a specially competent member of the Committee.

After an exchange of views, *it was decided to examine the agenda at the beginning of each session*, with a view to deciding which questions might form the subject of a public meeting, to take place preferably at the end of the session.

The Committee entrusted M. Destrée with the drawing up of a draft reply to the Association of Journalists accredited to the League of Nations.

133. Information regarding National Educational Systems : Note by Professor Gilbert Murray.

The CHAIRMAN opened the discussion on a note by Professor Gilbert Murray referring to information which should be collected with regard to the various systems of education (Annex 2).

Professor Gilbert MURRAY emphasised the practical character of his proposal. Experience had shown how difficult it was to obtain information on the educational systems of the different countries. He had reason to believe that the British Minister of Education would be prepared to draw up an exact statement showing the principal characteristics of the British system, and, as this system was one of the most complicated, similar statements could be prepared without great difficulty by other countries.

M. DE REYNOLD enthusiastically approved of this proposal. It showed how necessary it was for the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to possess an instrument to carry out its work and how desirable it was that the French plan for the establishment of an International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation should be realised.

M. LORENTZ recognised that it would be very useful to have all the data which it was proposed to collect, but he was in doubt whether the Committee would not be undertaking a task the dimensions of which might well give rise to some apprehension.

M. DESTRÉE suggested the following procedure. The largest possible quantity of information should first be collected and, later, an analytical summary should be made, taking as a basis the documents collected.

Professor Gilbert MURRAY proposed to submit at the next session a summary of the English system.

M. DESTRÉE and M. DE REYNOLD offered to submit at the next session similar summaries of the Belgian and Swiss systems.

The Committee adopted the proposal of Professor Gilbert Murray, as amended by M. Destrée, and decided to adjourn the discussion until summaries had been received.

134. Exchange of Professors and Advanced Students between Different Countries : Appointment of a Sub-Committee.

Mr. MILLIKAN submitted the following proposal :

“ It is proposed to create a new Sub-Committee which would take over a small part of the very large field of activity of the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations. The new Sub-Committee would be called ‘ Sub-Committee on the Exchange of Professors and Advanced Students between different countries ’.

“ This Sub-Committee would be small and its functions would be as follows :

“ (1) To inform itself fully regarding the score or more of agencies which are already operating in this field and regarding others which may in the future be created.

“ (2) To furnish information and advice to any agencies wishing to make use of its services.

“ (3) To take full responsibility for providing information from the League of Nations to the public through the *Bulletin* or otherwise as to the conditions of operation of any of these agencies.

“ (4) To devise new plans, if it so desires, for facilitating and extending the type of interchange with which it deals.

“ Since the influence of the Sub-Committee would be largely advisory and moral, it is proposed that, for the sake of efficiency, its membership should not exceed five, and that it should be constituted as follows :

M. H. A. LORENTZ (Chairman) ;
M. Henri BERGSON, Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation ;
Professor Gilbert MURRAY, Vice-Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation ;
Dr. NITOBÉ, Under Secretary-General of the League of Nations ;
Mr. Vernon KELLOGG, Permanent Secretary of the National Research Council, U.S.A. ”

Mr. Millikan added that the members of the Committee had followed with great interest the development of the ideas contained in the report of M. de Halecki on this subject. The Committee could congratulate itself that agencies existed which occupied themselves with exchanges. Some of these agencies had acquired great experience and disposed of considerable funds. It was necessary to know what relations the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should establish with these agencies.

With regard to the United States of America, the conclusion had been reached that the centralisation of the activities of the various agencies presented certain dangers and that the principal effort should be directed towards the organisation of collaboration. Experience had shown, in fact, that it was preferable to exercise an effective moral influence rather than to assume the responsibility of control. If this was true in the case of agencies which dealt with co-operation between American activities, it was *a fortiori* much more true in the case of an organisation like the League of Nations.

The small Sub-Committee which it was now proposed to establish could assist the efforts of the existing agencies or of those which would be created in the future, and act as a connecting link between them.

Each of the first four members whose names he had suggested was representative of a group of sciences, and they would, therefore, together possess the necessary authority. If the Committee thought it necessary to add a fifth member to represent the American agencies, it could appoint Mr. Vernon Kellogg, the eminent American biologist.

M. RUFFINI welcomed the American proposal, the advantages of which were obvious. He agreed unreservedly with the composition of the Sub-Committee, but he wondered if it would not be advisable to appoint, in addition, a representative of Latin America, which had made so great an effort to remain in contact with European culture.

Mr. MILLIKAN was of the opinion that this suggestion was an excellent one. As, however, it was of importance that the contemplated Sub-Committee should be as restricted in numbers as possible, the fifth member of the Sub-Committee might be a national of South America. However this might be, the Sub-Committee would have enough authority in the world without its being necessary to take geographical representation into consideration.

M. LUGONES thanked M. Ruffini for his generous suggestion. He recalled the fact that in the Argentine there were two institutes, which might one day be amalgamated, and which were working for the development of French and Italian cultures. In the Argentine, moreover, the work of the International Institute of Agriculture at Rome had considerable influence.

He thought that for the moment the proposal of Mr. Millikan should be adopted in its present form.

M. LORENTZ expressed sympathy with the American plan. Everything possible should be done to enter into relations with existing organisations. He enquired, however, whether it would not be better to choose a member, and especially a chairman, who was younger than himself and who had had more experience. Further, why could not Mr. Millikan himself be a member of the proposed Sub-Committee ?

Mr. MILLIKAN observed that he could exercise his influence without being a member of the Sub-Committee.

The proposal of Mr. Millikan was adopted without amendment.

135. Gift from the Italian Red Cross to Russian Intellectual Workers.

The SECRETARY read a letter from Senator G. Ciraolo to the Secretary-General dated June 20th, 1924 (Annex 3). In this letter, the Italian Red Cross Society asked the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to undertake the distribution of the sum of 100,000 Italian lire to those Russian intellectual workers who were in the most urgent and painful distress. It had been proposed that this sum should be allotted to the Russian Scientific Institution at Berlin.

After an exchange of views, *the Committee decided to thank Senator Ciraolo and the Italian Red Cross for this act of generosity*, which was all the more touching in view of the fact that it came from a country which had been particularly affected by the war.

With a view to ensuring the absolutely just distribution of the sum offered by the Italian Red Cross, the Committee asked the Directing Board of the International University Information Office to distribute the money, being specially guided by the information which M. Einstein would communicate to it after having consulted M. Ehrenfels.

136. **The Cinematograph in its Relation to Intellectual Life : Report by M. Luchaire.**

M. LUCHAIRE submitted a report, consisting of three parts — namely, the development of the cinematograph, the use of the magic lantern in education, and plans for international organisation (Annex 4).

The report ended with the three following resolutions, which had already been adopted by the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations on July 22nd, 1924 :

“ (1) The Committee is of opinion that the publication of an international catalogue of scientific films would serve a useful purpose. It instructs the International University Information Office to come to an understanding with the Swiss Federation of Students regarding the drawing-up of this catalogue.”

“ (2) The Committee would welcome with pleasure the meeting of an international congress of cinematography in the programme of which the scientific, artistic and educational interests affected by the development of cinematography would be the first question to be examined. A member of the Directing Board of the International Office might attend such a congress.”

“ (3) The Committee recommends the organisation of an international exhibition of scientific pictures and pictures for other educational purposes, both fixed and moving.”

On the proposal of the CHAIRMAN, supported by M. DESTRÉE, the Committee congratulated M. Luchaire on having taken the initiative in drawing up so interesting a report on such an important subject.

The three resolutions were adopted.

M. DE CASTRO emphasised the advisability of publishing an international catalogue of scientific films. He had had occasion to concern himself with the relations between the cinematograph and education, above all, medical education, and possessed some three hundred films. Scientific films enabled an explanation to be made of a surgical operation and showed the course of nervous or rare diseases. They were permanent documents of the first order. Unfortunately, these films were very expensive, and it would be advisable to take steps to approach the cinematograph companies with a view to obtaining reductions in price.

The Committee decided to bear this suggestion in mind, which might be considered later.

137. **Report of the Committee of Experts for the International Exchange of Publications.**

M. DE HALECKI submitted a report (Annex 5) which included resolutions relating to the exchange of official, scientific and literary publications, to the improvement of the working of the exchange service, to free postage and to various other suggestions (international lending of books, etc.).

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that it was M. de Halecki who had suggested the summoning of a Committee of experts for the examination of the international exchange of publications. The meeting had taken place at Geneva from July 17th to 19th, 1924, under the Chairmanship of M. de Halecki, and the experts had succeeded in formulating definite conclusions, which were an indivisible whole. The Committee could congratulate itself on the results achieved and it should thank M. de Halecki for his remarkable report.

On the proposal of the Chairman, *the Committee decided to add the question of the international lending of books to the agenda of its Sub-Committee on Bibliography and to instruct the Secretary to approach the Bureau of the Universal Postal Union on the subject of free postage.*

It was further decided to forward the conclusions of the Committee of experts to the Council and the Assembly.

SIXTH MEETING

held at Geneva on Monday, July 28th, 1924, at 3 p.m.

138. **Representation of the Committee at the Congress of the Union of International Associations (Geneva, September 8th, 1924).**

The Committee, having been asked to send a representative to the Congress, selected Dr. Nitobé.

Dr. Nitobé would submit a report to the Committee on the work of the Congress.

139. Communication from the International University Federation for the League of Nations.

A letter received from the Federation was read (Annex 6).

The CHAIRMAN emphasised the interest of this endeavour on the part of young university men to support the League of Nations.

The Committee asked its Chairman to inform the Federation that the Committee was greatly in sympathy with its efforts.

140. Establishment of an International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation: Draft Report to the Council.

The Committee read the draft report drawn up by M. Luchaire and approved by the Drafting Committee appointed to deal with the question.

During an exchange of views, it was agreed that it was not advisable to mention the possibility of adding to the proposed Institute an institute for international pedagogic studies, since the Committee had always wished to avoid every appearance of interference in national questions of education.

On the other hand, while the generous action of the French Government was generally appreciated and welcomed with gratitude, there were still doubts as to the nature of the proposed Institute. The French Government, by offering to establish in Paris an international Institute, wished to show the great interest it felt in intellectual co-operation between the nations and to facilitate the difficult task of the Committee.

Ought the Committee to refuse this offer by saying that, in its capacity of an international committee established by the League of Nations, it could only work with an international Institute established at Geneva either by international convention or by the French Government (with whom other nations or individuals might co-operate)? In this way, surely, all criticism based on the contention that there was the least appearance of an influence other than that of the League of Nations in the work of the Committee would be avoided. This ideal of an international Institute at Geneva, however, could not for the moment be realised. The nations which constituted the Assembly were not prepared (as had been shown by the experience of previous years) to vote the credits proposed by the French Government for the work of intellectual co-operation. The Committee would have, therefore, to continue to work for an indefinite period with very scanty resources, and some of its members were already somewhat discouraged at the prospect of having to continue work the execution of which was unceasingly delayed by the lack of financial resources.

The Committee, considering the manner in which the French offer would be submitted to the Council, and that the attitude adopted by the League of Nations with regard to this offer would inevitably be influenced by the advisory opinion given by the Committee, decided that it was necessary to amend the text proposed by the Drafting Committee so as to take into consideration the observations which had just been made.

The revision of the text was entrusted to a Sub-Committee, consisting of M. Lorentz, Mr. Millikan, M. de Reynold and M. Luchaire.

141. Publicity of Meetings of the Committee: Reply to the Association of Journalists accredited to the League of Nations.

M. DESTRÉE read a draft reply to the Association of Journalists, which was *adopted by the Committee* (Annex 7).

(Professor GILBERT MURRAY here took the chair in place of M. Bergson.)

142. Convention between the League of Nations and the International Institute of Bibliography.

The following draft Convention adopted by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography was read :

Article 1.

The League of Nations grants its patronage to the work carried on by the International Institute and referred to in Article 2 below, and will grant its assistance as far as possible with a view to facilitating the work of the Institute within these limits.

Article 2.

The International Institute undertakes to confine its efforts and its resources, in the first instance, to the following work :

(1) The development of an alphabetical catalogue by authors' names, on the lines of a collective catalogue of the great libraries of the world, indicating where a copy of any particular work can be found.

- (2) The development of the following sections of the systematic catalogue :
 - (a) Bibliography and sections connected with bibliography (history and technique of books, the book trade, periodicals, libraries and archives) ;
 - (b) Organisation of scientific work and intellectual co-operation.
- (3) Development of the collection of bibliographical works and library catalogues.
- (4) Centralisation of other documents and information concerning institutions and bibliographical societies, libraries and other organs of scientific, literary and artistic information.
- (5) Publication of subsequent editions of the *Index Bibliographicus*, the first edition of which is at the moment in course of preparation.
- (6) Publication of a periodical bulletin which would serve as the organ of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations for questions of bibliography.
- (7) An office where verbal information or information by correspondence would be given ; this office to maintain relations with the national offices or special offices of scientific information.

Article 3.

The order in which the work mentioned in Article 2 shall be undertaken shall be fixed by agreement between the International Institute and the representatives of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations appointed for this purpose.

Article 4.

The International Institute will submit annually to the League of Nations a report on its work. The representatives of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation shall be at liberty, if necessary, to investigate by a personal visit the state of the work.

Article 5.

The Governing Body of the Institute shall include a member appointed by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Article 6.

An annual subsidy, of which the amount shall be fixed each year by the League of Nations on the report of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, shall be allotted to the Institute, without prejudice to any allocation which may be paid or left to the League of Nations for the development of the Institute.

The SECRETARY said that the Sub-Committee had decided that this draft should be submitted to the plenary Committee, together with the following letter, which gave certain supplementary explanations :

“ In execution of the proposals made by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography concerning the utilisation of the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels, and unanimously adopted by the plenary Committee at its meeting of December 8th, 1923, the special Committee entrusted with drawing up a draft agreement to be concluded with this Institute has submitted to the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, at its meeting held on May 2nd, 1924, a text which, after discussion and amendment, has been adopted in the form of the attached draft Convention.

“ The Sub-Committee fully realises that the smallness of the Committee's budget would make it difficult, at the moment, to carry out the provisions of Article 6.

“ In introducing this article, the Sub-Committee desires to conform entirely with the last paragraph of the resolution adopted by the full Committee. It would, however, draw the attention of the Committee to the fact that, in its opinion, the rejection of this article would not in any way entail the non-acceptance of the whole Convention. Finally, since the League of Nations itself is free to fix the annual subsidy, it could, according to the amounts at the disposal of the League, be fixed at a very low figure or even suppressed in certain years.

“ If such a subsidy were granted, the League of Nations would also be free to allocate it definitely to any one of the tasks undertaken by the International Institute of Bibliography, in conformity with the present Convention.

“ The intention of the Sub-Committee is that the Convention which it proposes should only remain valid so long as the Institute is in possession of the funds at present at its disposal. ”

With regard to Article 6 of the draft Convention (annual subsidy of the League of Nations), the following passage from a letter by M. Lafontaine was read, which referred to the financial requirements of the Institute :

“ According to careful estimates, it would appear that, in order to be up-to-date, the Universal Bibliographical Register ought to contain from forty million to forty-five million items of information, divided more or less equally between the alphabetical and classified sections.

“ In its present state the alphabetical section of the Universal Bibliographical Register contains 6,500,000 index cards, and, in order to complete it, from thirteen million to fourteen million fresh index cards would be required — which is equivalent to the contents of 200 cabinets, each containing 72 drawers. With paper at its present price (1924), the wholesale price of the index cards is 16 Belgian francs per 1,000 ; allowance would therefore have to be made under this head for an expenditure of from 200,000 to 225,000 francs, to which a sum of from nine thousand to ten thousand francs must be added for the sectional index cards (at 30 Belgian francs per 1,000).

“ As regards the cabinets, the price has risen from 520 to 3,750 Belgian francs, which would mean that the 200 cabinets required would cost 750,000 francs ; but it will probably be possible to find a less costly means of preservation by utilising drawers of cardboard or sheet iron placed upon shelves.

“ It may be anticipated that, if the League of Nations invites them to do so, the libraries and bibliographical services of each country will place at the disposal of the International Bibliographical Institute the necessary copies of their catalogues. If these had to be bought, the sum required for the purpose would be rather considerable, although difficult to estimate.

“ Finally, there is the work to be accomplished in preparing the index cards : cutting out and pasting on of titles collected from the catalogues and, possibly, copying of titles obtained from other sources, together with classification and insertion. With the present rate of wages, such work could not be carried out for less than 30/40 centimes per pasted index card and 60/70 centimes per copied index card.

“ It should be remembered, however, that the work to be undertaken will be spread over a number of years, a number which could vary, of course, in inverse proportion to the resources available. The Universal Bibliographical Register, as it exists to-day with its 12,500,000 index cards, has required 25 years to create (excluding the war years) at an annual rate of increase of about 500,000 cards. The bibliographical activity of the International Bibliographical Institute could easily be doubled, trebled or quadrupled ; in this last case the alphabetical register could be completed in about seven years.

“ As regards the *Bulletin* of the International Bibliographical Institute, it comprised before the war 25 octavo pages, and the cost of printing per page at the present time would be from 600 to 700 Belgian francs per 1,000 copies.”

M. CASARES read the following statement :

“ Last year at the Fifth Committee of the Assembly I had the honour of proposing an amendment, which was accepted, to the draft resolution referring to the use to be made of the assistance of the International Bibliographical Institute at Brussels. The text submitted to us only contemplated an alphabetical catalogue of titles — that was to say, the least useful, and at the same time, the least rational catalogue which could be conceived. Confronted by this restriction, which, if it had once been adopted by the Assembly would have prevented us from using to a greater extent the resources of the Institute, I proposed to substitute in the text of the resolution the words ‘work of the Institute’, thus rendering possible a more complete use of the resources of this organisation.

“ Since then much progress has been made in this direction. The draft Convention submitted to us to-day proposes in the first place an alphabetical catalogue of authors’ names. This is already much better than a catalogue of titles. Mention is then made for the first time of a systematic catalogue which would for the moment be confined to the subjects of bibliography and the organisation of scientific work.

“ I am well aware that difficulties of all kinds, including those of a financial nature, prevent us from contemplating, at the moment, the general application of a methodical classification to the various domains of bibliography, but in urging the point of view which has already been eloquently argued before this Committee (I only have to remind you of the words of Mlle. Bonnevie and M. Godet) I consider it necessary to point out once more that what research workers need above all and before all is to be in a position to obtain information at any moment with regard to everything that has been published on any particular subject.

“ I consider, therefore, that a methodical classification by subjects, even if most imperfect, is always far more practical than any alphabetical catalogue, and I wish that this Committee, if it shares my opinion, should express, in the form of a resolution or recommendation or of a simple reference in the Minutes, the wish that an international system of bibliographical classification equally applicable to the various branches of knowledge and human activity should be established as soon as possible by the agency of the Committee and with the valuable co-operation of the Institute in Brussels.”

M. RUFFINI agreed with the recommendation made by M. Casares. For practical purposes, systematic classification, even if imperfect, was the most useful.

M. DESTRÉE pointed out that the text of the Convention to be concluded with the International Institute of Bibliography had been determined upon after long deliberation. This text had been unanimously approved and could only be amended with the consent of the representatives of the Institute.

The Committee decided :

- (1) To accept, as far as it was concerned, the text of the Convention.
- (2) To submit it to the Legal Section of the Secretariat for examination.
- (3) To adopt the recommendation expressed by M. Casares on the subject of the establishment of an international system of methodical classification.
- (4) To draw the attention of the League of Nations to the summary of the financial requirements of the International Institute of Bibliography forwarded by M. Lafontaine, and to express a recommendation in favour of granting an annual subsidy.

SEVENTH MEETING

held at Geneva on Tuesday, July 29th, 1924, at 10 a.m.

143. Liaison with the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers.

The SECRETARY read a telegram from M. Gallié, Secretary of the Confederation, thanking the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for its invitation, which he regretted that it was not possible to accept in view of the lateness of the date of its arrival.

144. International Federation for Mutual Assistance in the Relief of Peoples overtaken by Disaster.

The SECRETARY informed the Committee that the Social Section of the Secretariat had asked the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, at the request of Senator Ciraolo, to take part in the general enquiry regarding a world map of the geographical distribution of disasters by approaching the learned societies of the world and by encouraging the Commission for the study of disasters which had been established at Geneva.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation expressed regret that its agenda was too full to allow of its discussing this question at the present session. It expressed the desire that the question might be included in the agenda of the next session.

145. Co-ordination of Analytical Bibliographical Works concerned with Physics and Physical Chemistry : Report prepared by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography during its May Session 1924.

The CHAIRMAN opened the discussion on the report of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, referring to the work accomplished since the last session of the plenary Committee in December 1923 in Paris.

He pointed out that the work done was technical in character and had been carried out by specialists, and he did not believe that the decisions of the Sub-Committee would lead to a long discussion. The results obtained were very important, and, in point of fact, the work would shortly reach a definite conclusion.

The SECRETARY read the following recommendations which had been unanimously approved by the Sub-Committee during its session held at Brussels from May 1st to 3rd, 1924.

(a) Abstracts.

“ The Sub-Committee on Bibliography of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, after consulting several experts representing qualified associations and bibliographical organs, thinks it desirable, in the interests of scientific work, to recommend the following procedure :

“ (1) That all works published by scientific journals shall be preceded by abstracts drafted as far as possible by the authors themselves in conformity with precise rules. If these rules are not followed the abstracts will lose a great part of their value. The Sub-Committee especially recommends, after a close study of the question, the rules adopted by the *Physical Review*.

“ If these abstracts, for financial reasons or others, cannot be published at the same time as the articles or corresponding monographs, they should nevertheless be prepared and sent to the abstract journals in order to facilitate their work.

“(2) That these abstracts, destined to serve as a basis for the work of analytical bibliography, as well as to facilitate the consultation of the work or monograph of which they are an extract, should, in order to ensure that they conform to the rules adopted, be revised by the editor of the journal or by a specialist and published or communicated to the abstract journals, under the responsibility of the editor.

“(3) That, in the first place, periodicals which publish works concerning physics and its various immediate extensions towards the field of physical chemistry, astronomy, mineralogy, the technique of physics, etc., should be approached and their attention drawn to the interest that attaches to the application of the principles mentioned. Their observations on the subject should be obtained.

“(4) That, in order to ensure as complete and rapid a bibliographical documentation as possible in the field of physics, the periodicals concerned should be asked to communicate to the existing abstract journals for physics in general (*Journal de Physique* in Paris, *Physikalische Berichte* in Berlin, *Science Abstracts* in London), the summaries and the texts of all the works published by them, either in proof or in final form, without waiting for the publication of the number itself.

“(5) That the communication of abstracts should be made as far as possible in one of the languages in which an abstract journal for general physics exists.

“(6) That the abstract journals in the domain of general physics should be requested to come to some arrangement among themselves for collaboration with a view to simplifying their work and making it as complete and rapid as possible.

“Each of these organs should undertake, with the least possible delay, to make abstracts of all the articles published in the periodicals with which it is concerned, and to communicate these in proof form to the other interested journals.

“An arrangement should be concluded between them regarding the distribution of work concerning the preparation of abstracts of periodicals published in countries not possessing an abstract journal of a general character.

“Each abstract journal would take as a basis for its bibliographical publication the material sent to it either by the periodicals themselves or by the other bibliographical organs and should retain entire freedom as to the use of this material and the language in which it shall be published.

“(7) That an arrangement should be concluded between the publishers of the bibliographical journals, in order to settle the means of achieving this collaboration, either by allowing mutual freedom in regard to the reproduction or use of an article or on the basis of pre-determined subsidies.

“(8) In order to give the best possible scientific information, each abstract journal should publish a table of contents, drawn up in alphabetical order and based on an abstract of the contents of the monographs or extracts, in the form, for example, adopted by the *Chemical Abstracts* or the *Physical Review*.

“(9) The abstract journals should, in order to ensure as complete information as possible, make use of the general services of bibliography, such as the regional offices of the International Catalogue, and should obtain from these every facility for procuring the necessary information.”

The Committee approved of these recommendations.

(b) *Draft Letter to Editors of Periodicals.*

The SECRETARY then read the following text of the letter to be addressed to the editors of periodicals. This text had been unanimously approved by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography during its session at Brussels.

“The attention of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations has been drawn to the great importance, from the point of view of scientific work, of providing an analytical documentation which should be drawn up as speedily, completely and accurately as possible, and to the increasing difficulties which stand in the way of such a course.

“It is of opinion that it would be useful, in the first place, to make an effort to establish co-ordination in the field of physics and the immediate extensions from that field, since the work in that science has always been particularly active. With this end in view, the Committee has approved the proposals submitted to it by its Sub-Committee on Bibliography. Copies of these proposals and of information concerning detailed rules in accordance with which the abstracts of monographs referred to in these proposals should be drawn up are annexed to this letter.

“I should be extremely grateful if you would examine these documents and forward your opinion on the matter, stating how far your journal would be disposed to help in the work which we are endeavouring to initiate. We desire, in particular, to diminish and make more efficient the work of analytical bibliography carried on in the different countries.

“Should your periodical consider that it is unable to furnish the abstracts directly to the bibliographical organs, I would request you to be good enough to get into touch with one of these organs which would undertake more especially to summarise the contents of your publications.

“ We should be very glad if you could take part in the collective work which the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation considers essential for the development of scientific work. ”

The Committee approved the draft letter.

(c) *Guiding Principles for the Preparation of Abstracts.*

The SECRETARY then read the following guiding principles for the preparation of abstracts which had been approved by the Sub-Committee during its session at Brussels :

“ An abstract is destined to aid the reader by furnishing him with an index and a brief outline of the contents of the article. It should therefore be suitable for reproduction in an abstract journal, so as to render unnecessary or at any rate to facilitate the drafting of another summary.

“ As an index it should be complete ; the new results, and particularly those not immediately concerned with the general subject of the article, should be given in sufficient detail to show any reader whether the article contains anything of interest to him.

“ Since the tables of contents of bibliographical journals which are so valuable in finding references are prepared entirely from abstracts, anything not contained in these abstracts will be excluded from the table of contents and, therefore, lost. The writer of abstracts, therefore, assumes an important responsibility towards his scientific colleagues in the event of the result of his work not being sufficiently clear and complete.

“ The abstracts should indicate briefly the conclusions of the article, the results obtained and numerical statistics of general importance, including everything which might be of use in drawing up a manual or table of constants.

“ The abstracts should give all the information which non-expert readers might desire to have regarding the article, without being obliged to refer to the article itself. Experience has shown that in general the length of the abstract ought to be between 4 and 8 per cent of the length of the article.

“ The *Physical Review* affords numerous examples of the application of the preceding rules. ”

The Committee approved these guiding principles.

(d) *Use of Abstracts for the Preparation of Index Cards.*

The SECRETARY read the following recommendation made by the Sub-Committee on the subject of the practical organisation of documentation in each branch of science :

“ The Committee notes that in many sciences the documentation at the disposal of the learned public is still very imperfectly organised. It hopes that the measures proposed by the Committee for the improvement of the bibliography of physical sciences will constitute a useful beginning for such an organisation if they are fully carried out and if they are applied in other scientific fields. Nevertheless, while awaiting the results which may be expected from this beginning, the Committee would welcome with pleasure any step taken by the great scientific associations or learned bodies towards studying the practical organisation of the documentation of each branch of science, and it would gratefully receive any suggestions regarding that question. ”

The Committee approved this recommendation.

**146. Placing in Reviews of Scientific Studies which their Authors are unable to publish :
Resolution adopted by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography during its May Session 1924.**

The SECRETARY read the following resolution which had been unanimously adopted by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography during its session at Brussels :

“ The Secretariat of the Committee will assist as far as possible in placing in the reviews and scientific collections of all countries, studies of a scientific nature which their authors are unable to publish ; particular attention will be given to works coming from countries where the consequences of the war have delayed or prevented the appearance of scientific publications. These works may be submitted to the Secretariat either by a National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, by a scientific institution or learned body, or by a very well-known savant. These transmissions by the National Committees or by the Secretariat will in no case contain an appreciation of the scientific value of the works submitted. The editors of the reviews will be the sole judges of the possibility of insertion. ”

The Committee adopted this resolution.

The SECRETARY recalled the fact that the Sub-Committee had contemplated arriving at an arrangement with the Italian review *Scientia*, which was prepared, provided that

the costs of printing were repaid, to publish the works of savants who, owing to existing circumstances, found it impossible to publish their works themselves. He informed the Committee that the contemplated arrangement had given rise to objections.

The CHAIRMAN observed that this review was a very interesting one, and that it would be useful to know the reasons which could be urged against the contemplated arrangement.

The Committee asked the Sub-Committee on Bibliography to examine this question.

The CHAIRMAN informed the Committee that the *Isis*, a review edited by M. Sarton, would be prepared to negotiate with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation with regard to the publication of the works of savants. This review, which had formerly appeared in Belgium, had been transferred to America. It was necessary that the Committee should take this request into account.

M. DE HALECKI explained that the *Isis* was published by the History of Science Society. Its European Secretary was M. Léon Guinet. Dr. G. E. Hale, former member of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, was a member of the Governing Body of the Society.

The Committee decided to put this question on the agenda of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography.

On the proposal of M. DE HALECKI, the Committee decided to ask the Sub-Committee on Bibliography to examine methods for making known, through an international scientific review, the results of the works published in a language with which people are not generally familiar.

M. William MARTIN thought that the Sub-Committee should occupy itself later with literary, philosophical, and other articles when the question of purely scientific articles had been settled. Many reviews would then be glad to make an arrangement with the Committee, notably the *Revue de Genève*.

The CHAIRMAN replied that it would be advisable to start with scientific articles regarding which the principles adopted could be applied immediately. The Sub-Committee would then take steps to extend these principles to other subjects.

147. Organisation of Scientific Documentation.

The SECRETARY recalled the fact that Mr. Fulcher had proposed that a special Sub-Committee should be appointed to study measures to establish in each country one or more complete libraries, or a series of libraries, making a complete library where savants and research workers would be enabled to find all necessary scientific information.

Mr. Fulcher had also proposed that a card index should be drawn up for all scientific questions.

The Committee invited the Sub-Committee on Bibliography to continue this study and to ask Mr. Fulcher to submit a definite proposal before the next session of the Sub-Committee.

148. Report of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography on its Session held at Geneva on July 23rd and 24th, 1924.

The CHAIRMAN opened the discussion on the report of and conclusions reached by the Sub-Committee.

(a) *Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry.*

The Committee noted a communication from the Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry to the Sub-Committee on Bibliography. The Union proposed to summon a conference with a view to studying problems connected with the documentation referring to chemistry and as to the complete organisation of this documentation.

The Committee expressed the wish to be kept informed of the work of the Union and of any resolutions it might adopt.

(b) *Convention between the National Library of Vienna and the Central Library of Moscow.*

The Committee took note of a letter in which the National Library of Vienna informed the Sub-Committee on Bibliography that it had concluded a convention with the Central Library of Moscow regarding the exchange of duplicate copies of books and official publications.

(c) *Bibliography of Greco-Latin Antiquity.*

The SECRETARY recalled the fact that a questionnaire had been dispatched to the savants of various countries asking their opinion on this question and informed the Committee that a certain number of replies had already reached the Secretariat.

The Committee approved the following decisions taken by the Sub-Committee :

“ The Sub-Committee decides to postpone its decision on the steps which could be taken with regard to this question until a larger number of replies has been received. It further decides to request Professor Gilbert Murray to become a member of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography when this question is discussed. ”

(d) *Analytical Bibliography of Physics and Physical Chemistry.*

The Committee approved the following decisions taken by the Sub-Committee :

“ Wishing to obtain the views of M. Scheel, Editor of *Physikalische Berichte*, who is unable, for private reasons, to come to Geneva, the Sub-Committee decides to ask M. Scheel to negotiate with the Practical Physics Society, and subsequently to go to Brussels with full powers to negotiate with a Commission, which might consist of Mme. Curie, Mr. Cooper, M. Langevin and Professor Lorentz. This Commission will also consult the lists sent by the experts from Brussels and will select a number of periodicals to which the recommendation should be sent, its choice being limited to periodicals devoted solely to physics and cognate subjects.

“ It is also decided that, in the case of each periodical included in the general list, the experts should specify the headings which should be selected for the abstracts to be sent. The Commission, the appointment of which was suggested by Professor Einstein, will also formulate conclusions to be submitted to the Plenary Committee, together with the observations made at the present meeting of the Sub-Committee. ”

The Committee decided to adopt as its own any conclusions which the Commission might provisionally reach at its next meeting in Brussels.

*The Committee approved the following draft letter drawn up by Mme. Curie and M. Langevin and decided that the letter should be forwarded by M. Lorentz, Chairman of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, to the Governing Body of the society publishing the *Journal de Physique*, to the *Deutsche Gesellschaft für Praktische Physik* and to the Chairman of the *Science Abstracts* Committee :*

“ The Sub-Committee on Bibliography of the League of Nations having been entrusted with the examination of all means to perfect and extend international co-operation in regard to bibliography, has determined to direct its first efforts towards achieving this in the field of physics and its immediate cognate subjects.

“ After consulting the necessary experts, the Committee has adopted a series of resolutions, a copy of which is attached to this letter. It asks you to examine these proposals and to give them your moral, as well as active, support in regard to any facilities which your society may be requested to grant.

“ The Committee firmly hopes that you will be ready to associate yourself with this work of international co-operation, which has been undertaken with a view to facilitating the progress of science. ”

(e) *Index Bibliographicus.*

The SECRETARY informed the Committee that M. Godet had submitted a report (Annex 8) to the effect that the *Index Bibliographicus* could be printed towards the end of the current year. He reminded the Committee that a sum of 5,000 Swiss francs had been placed at the disposal of the Committee for this purpose.

M. DESTRÉE emphasised the necessity of seeking means to print and publish the publications of the Committee at less cost.

The Committee agreed to the printing of the Index Bibliographicus within the limits of the sum set apart for this purpose and decided to leave it to the Secretariat to take such action as might be necessary. It also approved the following recommendation adopted by the Sub-Committee :

“ The Committee thinks it advisable that the publications issued by it should be methodically distributed, and draws attention to the fact that in certain cases an agreement with a publisher, who would both defray the cost and enjoy the profits of the undertaking, would be preferable to an agency system. In any event, it asks that the agents for the publications issued by it should be chosen from publishing firms which have specialised in the same kind of publication and whose usual customers constitute the public which the Committee desires to reach. The Committee instructs the Secretariat to transmit these observations to the competent body of the League of Nations. ”

(f) *Enquiry regarding Archives : Proposal of the Institute of Historical Research of the University of London.*

The Committee adopted the following draft resolution already approved by the Sub-Committee :

“ The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, having been asked by the Institute of Historical Research of the University of London to aid it in collecting information as to the conditions governing the work in the archives of the various countries ;

“ Having regard to the importance of the question submitted by this Institute, and, speaking generally, in view of the necessity of organising from the international point of view a documentation referring to the sources of manuscript, which is for certain studies more important than the bibliography of printed books :

“ (1) Instructs its secretariat to transmit the questionnaire drawn up by the Institute of Historical Research to the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation, or, if such National Committees do not exist, to the Directors of the national archives of all countries ;

“ (2) Decides to put the information thus obtained at the disposal of the Institute of Historical Research with a view to its regular publication in the *Bulletin* of the Institute, in conformity with the proposal made to the Committee ;

“ (3) Decides to publish later the whole of this information, with the possible collaboration of the Institute and of the editorial staff of the *Index Generalis*, in the form of a systematic catalogue similar to its *Index Bibliographicus* ;

“ (4) Decides to communicate its resolution to the International Committee on Historical Sciences. ”

(g) *Analytical Bibliography of the Social Sciences.*

On the proposal of the CHAIRMAN, the Committee *adopted the conclusions of the Sub-Committee and decided* to appoint several experts with instructions :

- (a) To define the scope of a bibliography of the social sciences, or of a group of these sciences, such as, for example, the economic sciences ;
- (b) To obtain information regarding the bibliographical institutions which concern themselves with the subject, as thus defined ;
- (c) To report as to the best means of arriving at a working agreement to realise this bibliography in practice.

The Committee decided that the bibliography of the social sciences should deal first with political economy. It was understood that the experts should request the co-operation of the Economic Section of the Secretariat and that they would take into account the bibliography collected by the International Labour Office during its enquiry into production.

The Committee left the choice of experts to its Chairman and Vice-Chairman.

(h) *Publication of Lists of Notable Books which have appeared in Various Countries in the World.*

The CHAIRMAN opened the discussion on the proposal of Mr. Hagberg Wright, which the Sub-Committee had adopted in the following form :

“ The Committee thinks it highly desirable that an annual list should be issued of notable recent books in each country. Such a list should be established in accordance with the following principles :

“ (1) The books should be chosen from among those dealing with an important subject or possessing a distinctive character and accessible to educated people :

“ (2) Countries publishing each year (new books placed on the market) :

10,000 books or upwards will be entitled to name	40 books
from 5,000 to 10,000 books	» » » » 25 »
from 2,500 to 5,000 books	» » » » 15 »
less than 2,500 books	» » » » 10 »

“ These numbers are subject to revision.

“ (3) The list will be subdivided into the following subjects : history, law, the social sciences, theology, philosophy, belles-lettres, art, geography, books of travel, philology and literary history, the exact sciences, the natural sciences and the applied sciences.

“ (4) The Committee entrusts to the Directing Board of the International University Information Office the duty of designating each year in each country, in agreement with the National Committees, a duly qualified person, who will draw up, by March 1st at latest, the list in respect of the country concerned. This person will consult the leading authorities of the country in each branch of intellectual activity.

“ The general list will be published as an annex to the *Bulletin* of the Office not later than July 1st. It will be published solely for purposes of reference.

“ It is understood that each country will mention its best books without necessarily placing names in all the subdivisions of the list.

“ A notice will be published every year at the head of each list to the effect that the list in question is only limited by reasons of necessity and that it is in no way exhaustive. ”

The Chairman emphasised the importance of this proposal.

On the proposal of Mme. CURIE, supported by M. Destrée, *it was decided* to specify in the last paragraph that a notice would be placed every year at the head of each list stating that the list was published on the responsibility of the person who signed it.

The proposal, thus amended, was adopted.

149. *Agenda of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography.*

The Committee decided to add to the agenda of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography the following questions :

- (a) Creation of an international review or agreements with reviews regarding the publication of works for which a publisher has not been found.

- (b) Preparation of bibliographies: (i) of physical sciences; (ii) of social sciences; (iii) of Greco-Latin antiquity.
- (c) Means of making generally known works published in a little-known language.
- (d) Proposals of Mr. Fulcher concerning the organisation of scientific documentation.
- (e) International lending of books.

150. Report by the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property.

(a) *Scientific Property.*

The CHAIRMAN opened the discussion on the report of the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property regarding Senator Ruffini's scheme concerning scientific property (Annex 9).

The Committee adopted the following resolution submitted by the Sub-Committee:

"The Committee has received and examined the replies of the Governments on the question of scientific property.

"Although the majority of the States most closely concerned have notified their opinions, the Committee thinks it advisable to postpone drawing any conclusion from them until more replies have been examined.

"It notes further that the large majority of the replies from Governments and of the reasoned opinions given by competent institutions and authorities agree upon the following points:

"(1) A new right should be created for scientists whose discoveries have been profitably applied;

"(2) It is extremely difficult to determine the rules for the application of this right to each particular case;

"(3) The legitimate interests of industries which depend on the application of scientific discoveries should be taken into consideration.

"In these conditions, although it notes with gratification that great progress has been achieved along the lines which the Assembly authorised it to follow, the Committee does not feel that it is yet in a position to propose a definitive text for an international convention, but thinks it advisable to convene first a conference of experts to investigate the various objections to M. Ruffini's scheme, and, if necessary, to make the required modifications in it. The fact that, thanks to the initiative of the League of Nations, a new principle of considerable importance would appear to be henceforward accepted, is a cogent reason for giving the various interests concerned as careful consideration as possible and framing proposals which will be likely to obtain general acceptance. The experts should be chosen in such a manner that the Governments chiefly concerned and the scientific and industrial worlds may be officially represented at the Conference.

"The Committee accordingly requests the Council:

"(1) To invite those States which have not yet expressed their opinions on the question of scientific property to forward their replies not later than January 1st, 1924.

"(2) To convene, for a date after January 1st, 1925, a conference of experts to study the various problems raised by the question of scientific property."

M. RUFFINI informed the Committee that it had been understood that he should prepare, in collaboration with M. Röthlisberger, an impartial supplement to his report, for the purpose of removing any objections which might be made to his scheme. For this purpose he would go to Berne in order to make use of the very large documentation collected by M. Röthlisberger and M. Gariel.

His scheme regarding scientific property had aroused interest in the whole world and the replies received up to the moment were very encouraging; even the British reply, which perhaps contained the most reservations, recognised the right of savants to remuneration. The scheme had been criticised in the same manner as the patents for inventions had been criticised seventy-five years previously. These criticisms had not prevented patents from being recognised by legislation in Great Britain, France, Germany, etc. Similar recognition would be given to scientific property. Difficulties, without doubt, existed, but they were not insurmountable. The new German Constitution of 1919 contained a clause which was unique in national legislation, except perhaps in the legislation of the United States of America. This clause assured protection to the intellectual worker and guaranteed the right of inventors in scientific, artistic and technical fields. The adhesion of Germany could therefore be counted upon in advance, since that country was already ahead of all nations in regard to its patent legislation.

The principle of remuneration being admitted, two theories had been put forward regarding the means of applying it. The existing national legislation could be taken as a basis, as had been the case for patents and authors' rights. Further, an international convention could be drafted by the machinery of the League of Nations.

With regard to the remuneration to be granted to savants, there were also two theories. Some thought that savants had the right to share the profits whenever a direct connection between a scientific discovery and its application could be proved. Others thought that the relation between a discovery and its application was difficult to prove and that none existed for certain sciences. Consequently, supporters of this theory proposed that a fund should be

established by means of the taxation of industrial profits. This was a system proposed by M. de Torres Quevedo and favoured by most States. It would be a matter of regret to M. Ruffini if the other system were entirely abandoned.

As the matter stood at the moment, and now that savants had taken their decisions, it was important to get the opinion of representatives of industry and to come to an understanding, in particular, with those of them who were playing a part in the Parliamentary and national life of their country.

M. CASARES emphasised the fact that, as M. Ruffini had spontaneously pointed out, the Governments which had been consulted seemed rather to favour the solution proposed by M. de Torres Quevedo, as did the scientific corporations of the various countries and even the Berne Bureau, the highest theoretical and practical authority in the domain of intellectual and industrial property. Further, it was possible and even desirable to reconcile M. Ruffini's theory (direct remuneration paid by the exploiter of the discovery to the inventor) with the theory of M. de Torres Quevedo (payment by industry into a central fund from which authors of discoveries should be remunerated, a study of the pure sciences encouraged and research laboratories aided). The scheme of an individual remuneration could be used in cases where the inventor showed that an industrial application of his discovery was possible and the system of indirect remuneration could be used in other cases.

M. RUFFINI agreed to this proposal in principle and said that he would develop it in his supplementary report.

(b) *Protection of Professional Titles.*

The Committee adopted the following resolution submitted by the Sub-Committee :

“ The Committee considers it desirable to direct the attention of the Assembly to the question of the protection of professional titles. When a nation has organised a whole course of studies for the bestowal of a professional title, such title should, both in the interest of the studies themselves and from the point of view of honest competition, be protected against usurpation, preferably by a penal clause similar to that rendering the unauthorised wearing of decorations an offence.

“ The circumstances, however, are so various that the Committee considers that any suggestion for the international regulation of this question would be premature. ”

(c) *Register for International Associations.*

The Committee adopted the following resolution submitted by the Sub-Committee :

“ The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation requests the Council to authorise the International Bureaux Section of the League of Nations to open a register of international associations and institutions of a social, scientific, artistic or literary character. An association or institution will only be entered in the register provided that no other association or institution having the same title has been previously entered therein or is publicly known to possess such title.

“ Registration has only a moral value. In order to give it legal value, international corporate status should be obtained for the above-mentioned associations or institutions, either through the League of Nations or through an inter-governmental conference. ”

EIGHTH MEETING

held at Geneva on Tuesday, July 29th, 1924, at 3 p.m.

151. Reform of Education : Proposal of M. Lugones.

The CHAIRMAN asked M. Lugones to explain his proposal referring to the reform of education.

M. LUGONES said that, in the course of the present session and from documentary evidence of previous sessions, he had noted that the Committee almost exclusively devoted itself to European problems. He drew attention to this fact, without the least desire to make reproaches or to indulge in negative criticism. He thought that he could fully appreciate the very grave and even distressing reasons which had led to this state of mind, but for that very reason he could not share in it more fully than his sympathies would allow.

He, however, had no intention of adopting the other extreme by making an American proposal; such a proposal would only make matters worse. The plan which he submitted to the Committee for its consideration had a more general and even a more human interest,

and was in conformity with the spirit of harmony typical of the Latin-American republics, to whose wishes he was present at the moment in order to give expression.

A Committee which had been called upon to co-operate with the League of Nations should pursue the same object as the League, namely, to avoid war. The Committee was required, above all, to propose measures to attain this end. This object very closely connected the field of action of the Committee with the question of public education. As men of science and also as women of science — represented as were the latter in the Committee by the most eminent of all women scientists — and as writers and professors, his colleagues and himself were responsible for transmitting ideas and for the formation of the public conscience. Perhaps the most disturbing conclusion which could be drawn as a result of war was that the public conscience was reconciled to a state of war. This accounted for the unanimity of the peoples before the war, and also for the danger of another war occurring at any moment.

A new public conscience must, therefore, be developed. The task was difficult and complicated; it was perhaps the most difficult and complicated task which could be conceived. This, however, was all the more reason for not postponing it.

M. Lugones intended to collaborate with the Committee by means of that peculiarly Latin characteristic, organisation on the basis of reason, without in any way depreciating, on that account, the decisive factors for action and for success which would be contributed to the carrying out of the plan by the practical empiricism of the Anglo-Saxon and the powerful analytical faculty of the Germans.

Since the religions were not within the competence of the Committee, it should endeavour to bring about a change in the conception of public education, not only in the universities, but, above all, in the secondary schools and the training schools for teachers. In the case of most individuals, in fact, conscience was formed by the knowledge acquired in the elementary and secondary school, and public opinion was, for the modern world, a synonym for the majority. The political conscience of the modern world, including the conceptions of patriotism and humanitarianism, was historical information, and the Committee should, therefore, first of all examine the question of the teaching of history.

M. Lugones asked to be allowed, in order to make his scheme clearer, to present it in the form of a list, which, though monotonous, had the advantage of brevity. His scheme was as follows :

(1) The purely narrative history of each country and individual continents should be transformed into the history of civilisation. Since civilisation was above all a question of communications and of peace, it would be possible to study, in this way, the various historical phenomena unified in the conception of a single effort with a view to increasing the welfare of the human race.

(2) A change should be made in the teaching of special and general geography, which should be considered, in the first place, as the complement of history and then as the instrument for the reciprocal knowledge of the potential utility of each nation and of the relations between them. The history of commerce, which was very largely that of geographical discoveries, would form a link between these two sciences.

(3) The methods of mathematical education should be improved, with a view to basing the reasoning faculty and the conscience on the loyal acceptance of demonstration which constituted the rational conception of honour. This latter point was of the utmost importance for the formation of character.

(4) The teaching of the classics and music should be made more extensive, with a view to strengthening the feelings of generosity and goodwill inspired by objective beauty. Music was the most international of the arts and essentially the universal human language.

(5) The teaching of political economy should be based on the development of industry, which should be considered as the heritage of the human race, in the building up of which all nations have co-operated.

For the rest, all education should be directed towards the formation of the human conscience, as a part, or rather as the essence, of the national conscience; the aim should be the *genus humanum*, which was the dream of the Roman Empire.

The systematic opposition of the two ideals, nationalism and internationalism, and also the cleavage, often accompanied by great bitterness, between intellectual and manual work, to the latter of which all consideration has been given, were the two great errors of political humanitarianism.

We who are the children of that great pity for humanity which Victor Hugo, foremost amongst romanticists, has portrayed for us — we may now say that he was wrong. Humanity without country is a metaphysical paradox, and to define labour by the bodily organ used is a mere demagogic device to appeal to sentiment.

Let us then fight the good fight as true sons of humanity, because good patriots.

I have now, gentlemen, to accord you my thanks, and at the same time to crave your indulgence for having taken up so much of your valuable time.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Lugones for his very interesting communication. He proposed that, in view of the short time at the disposal of the Committee, the examination of M. Lugones' scheme should be postponed until the next session.

The proposal of the Chairman was adopted.

152. Appointment of Correspondents of the Committee : Proposal of Mr. Millikan.

Mr. MILLIKAN explained that there were fully qualified persons in the United States, such as presidents of universities, who could be induced to devote part of their time for the next ten years to the questions dealt with by the Committee, and to make known the work of the Committee in their country, where its true significance was not always understood. These persons would be fully competent for this work and would have independent resources at their disposal. The question was to know what credentials should be given to them in their country.

Mr. Millikan said that he had one or two Americans in mind, but it was possible that fully qualified persons could also be found in other countries who would be prepared to fulfil a similar task.

The speaker proposed that the Sub-Committee of which M. Lorentz was Chairman should be asked to appoint men of this type and to arrange for them to receive the credentials of correspondents.

M. LORENTZ supported the proposal of Mr. Millikan. It was advisable that the persons likely to be of service to the Committee should receive credentials from it showing that they were, to some extent, attached to the League of Nations. For example, the title of "correspondent" of the Committee might be adopted. On the other hand, since the Committee only held one plenary session every year and it was advisable that these correspondents should be appointed at any time, the Committee could authorise its Chairman and Vice-Chairman to appoint correspondents nominated by the Sub-Committee over which he presided.

Mme. CURIE was of the opinion that there was no reason why persons who rendered service to the cause of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in their various countries should not be appointed correspondents to the Committee, but she was in doubt whether it would be advisable to regulate, in advance, the conditions governing the granting of this title.

The CHAIRMAN remarked that Mr. Millikan had, no doubt, in mind persons whom he knew in the United States who would be able to go from university to university and carry out useful propaganda for the cause of intellectual co-operation. These persons would not be officials, but entirely independent individuals and would have great authority. If, however, the work carried out by these persons were really to be of use, it was necessary that they should receive a mandate from the League of Nations. Since there was no method by which the League of Nations could appoint them, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation could do so.

Mr. MILLIKAN said that, as he wished entirely competent persons to be chosen, he could not submit any names at the moment. The work which they would undertake was, however, of an urgent nature and it would therefore be advisable to appoint them as soon as possible. He proposed that the Committee, since it had not established the system of correspondents in a very definite way, might easily delegate its power of appointment to its Chairman and Vice-Chairman, subject to confirmation by the full Committee at its annual session. It was altogether necessary to find some more rapid means of procedure than appointment by the plenary Committee. Mr. Millikan, therefore, supported the suggestion of M. Lorentz to delegate to the Chairman and Vice-Chairman the power to make appointments upon the nomination of M. Lorentz' Sub-Committee.

Mme. CURIE remarked that the Committee might perhaps have more correspondents than it desired. It would be advisable to choose persons who had already rendered services to the cause of intellectual co-operation.

The CHAIRMAN said that one of the criteria for the nomination of these correspondents would be the qualification mentioned by Mme. Curie; the title of correspondent could, however, be given also to persons who were to be asked by the Committee to assist in the work of intellectual co-operation.

M. LORENTZ pointed out that the Chairman had already the right of appointing experts.

The Committee decided that the Chairman and Vice-Chairman should appoint the correspondents on the nomination of the Sub-Committee presided over by M. Lorentz.

153. Establishment of an Institute of Intellectual Co-operation : Adoption of the Report to the Council.

The SECRETARY read the draft report in question, which had been drawn up by M. de Reynold, Mr. Millikan, M. Lorentz and M. Luchaire, in collaboration.

M. LUCHAIRE was of the opinion that the last sentence of the tenth paragraph : "it is clear that it would be advantageous to the Institute to consult the International Labour Office", restricted too much the rôle of the International Labour Office. He proposed therefore to replace the words "consult the International Labour Office" by "co-operate with the International Labour Office".

The proposal of M. Luchaire was adopted.

Mr. MILLIKAN and M. EINSTEIN said that they were entirely in agreement with the terms of the draft.

The draft report was unanimously adopted, the final text of which was as follows :

“ If the Council of the League of Nations decides to accept the generous and disinterested offer of the French Government, the Committee feels that it may at this stage assist the Council by indicating very briefly the lines on which an institution such as that suggested by the French Government might carry on its duties.

“ The Committee considers that, after studying and discussing for more than two years the main questions connected with the organisation of international intellectual co-operation, it has reached a point at which further progress will be difficult unless it has at its disposal far more extensive means than those which it at present possesses. Last year, the Council and the Assembly, in authorising the creation of an International University Information Office attached to the Secretariat, recognised the fact that the Committee, which constitutes the brain of this organisation, must possess the necessary means of putting its ideas into practice. But the very limited resources which the Council has been able to grant the Committee for this purpose have only made it possible to establish the embryo of a great organisation such as would befit the importance and complexity of the interests which the Committee has in its keeping.

“ However much the Committee may desire to pass from the period of recommendations to that of realisation, it must, first of all, point out that certain questions of principle have to be examined before it can proceed any further with its task. The Committee, which is an advisory committee of the Council of the League of Nations, has its seat, as well as its Secretariat, at Geneva ; there should be no question of altering these arrangements. Since its activities, in conformity with its very designation, must be world-wide, it is able to utilise for this purpose any appropriate institution, in whatever quarter of the world that institution may be established, whether the institution in question is an international institution legally established by a convention between contracting States or whether it is an institution for international studies connected with international co-operation and founded by a Government. It is not, however, for the Committee to express an opinion on the legal relations between itself and the suggested Institute.

“ But, whatever solution may be reached, the essential point is that some organisation should be set up and that the intellectual activity of the modern world, which has been adversely affected by many evils and menaced with irreparable decay in certain countries, should finally receive through the League of Nations that assistance which it has been promised for several years, but which it has never really obtained. Possibly other Governments will also lend their material and moral support to the noble initiative taken by France.

“ Much remains to be accomplished and the preliminary work, which has, of course, been partly theoretical, carried out during more than two years by the Committee, enables the latter even at this stage to define the lines on which it is working and along which it would desire to develop its activities to a far greater extent in the future.

“ In the first place, there is the Committee's effort to obtain information as to the state of intellectual life in various countries. This enquiry, which has been conducted up to the present with funds which have necessarily been very limited, might be continued by an Information Service. Through this service the Committee might finally complete its study of all the technical problems connected with intellectual co-operation. It might draw up periodical statistics concerning intellectual life. Possessing, as it would, a fund of general information which no private institution has the leisure to collect, it would establish a sort of connection between all branches of intellectual production. To this service it would be desirable to attach a special library of documentation concerning contemporary intellectual life.

“ The Committee has also set up a modest International University Information Office. In the same way a section might be organised to serve as a connecting link between the national offices and higher educational establishments in all countries, a task which the present Office for university relations, in view of its limited resources, has only been able to carry out in a perfunctory manner.

“ There might be a Section for Scientific Relations connected with the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, which might work to secure co-operation in all branches of science. This section might be in close touch with the International Institute of Bibliography and other great international bibliographical organisations.

“ In connection with the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property, a Legal and Economic Section might be established. This section would follow the development of all matters of an international nature connected with the material interests of intellectual workers. By timely action, wherever required, it would assist in carrying into execution the great scheme connected with scientific property and other schemes concerning artistic property. It would study the legal aspects of the problems raised by intellectual co-operation. In this sphere, the Institute would naturally obtain many advantages by co-operating with the International Labour Office.

“ It would therefore seem to be desirable to strengthen, in collaboration with the national services of this kind which certain countries have already established, artistic and literary relations, for it is well known how slightly each country is acquainted with artistic and literary thought in other countries. The associations which group together workers of these categories are often very powerful and it would be an excellent thing if they could be brought within the orbit of international activity. There would be considerable advantage in multiplying the number of exhibitions, translations, international congresses, etc.

“ A Press Service would be useful. The Press plays a very important part in international intellectual life and consequently there should be maintained between the Press and the Institute a contact which would prove advantageous both to the work of the Committee and to the Press itself. In practice, from the point of view of the propaganda needed for the success of these

undertakings, the Committee requires the assistance of numerous Press organisations and especially periodicals in all countries.

“ The Committee does not feel that the above suggestions constitute by any means a complete list of all the branches of normal and almost daily work connected with intellectual co-operation which the Institution might undertake, for this list only refers to matters which have already been met with by the Committee in the course of its work. There are other questions which an international organ could gradually take up. It is also clearly understood that the work of the Committee and the Institute or the auxiliary institutions attached thereto should not in any way supersede that of existing international institutions. But the task, however, is so great that, merely in the domain of suggestion, encouragement and contact, a numerous and well-organised group of collaborators belonging to the Committee would have sufficient work for many years to come.

“ For the present, the Committee can do nothing more than furnish these brief indications, which it is well aware are empirical, and which it has had to draw up in haste. It has always kept clear of theory in matters of organisation. Moreover, it regards the proposal of the French Government as a starting point for future activities, the precise extent of which it is impossible at present to foresee. The Committee feels that sufficient material exists at present for the setting up of a fairly complex auxiliary institution, or, possibly, several institutions. It desires once more to emphasise the importance which it attaches to this first attempt to safeguard fully the interests entrusted to it by the League.

“ The above is the Committee's point of view as regards the French Government's proposal, based on such lofty ideals, for the creation of an Institute of International Intellectual Co-operation. The political and legal aspects of the question do not come within the competence of the Committee. It is for the Council and the Assembly to consider the matter and take such decisions as they may deem to be in keeping with the interests of the League of Nations. The Committee therefore has merely indicated what the main lines of the work of such an institution might be, and, in so doing, it feels that it has not exceeded its powers or in any way prejudged the practical solution of the question. ”

154. Examination of the Report of the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations.

The CHAIRMAN opened the discussion on the report of the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations.

(a) PROPOSALS OF THE SPANISH GOVERNMENT.

The SECRETARY read the resolutions adopted by the Sub-Committee regarding the proposals of the Spanish Government.

M. de HALECKI wished to propose a purely formal amendment which consisted in transferring the paragraph “ The Sub-Committee has examined, with the greatest attention to the preservation of peace among mankind, ” to the head of the resolution before the section dealing with equivalence of degrees. It would thus be shown that the tribute paid to the Spanish Government referred to all the proposals.

M. CASARES thanked M. de Halecki for his proposal.

The amendment proposed by M. de Halecki was adopted.

The resolutions proposed by the Sub-Committee were adopted in the following form :

“ The Sub-Committee has examined with the greatest attention the proposals of the Spanish Government. It is of opinion that they show the present importance of doing everything possible to combat in universities the tendency to isolation and the fostering of a spirit of nationalism, which are contrary to good understanding between nations since they may prove harmful to the preservation of peace among mankind.

“ After having taken note of the reports presented by M. de Halecki and M. Castillejo on the questions raised by the Spanish Government, the Sub-Committee thinks, with them, that obstacles, at the moment insurmountable, stand in the way of the immediate creation of an official international university.

(1) *Equivalence of Degrees.*

“ The Sub-Committee considers it to be very desirable that States and universities, which intend to reserve to themselves the exclusive right to hold all the examinations which their students are required to take, should at least allow the students to carry on their preliminary studies for these examinations abroad, provided that certain guarantees be given.

“ The Sub-Committee thinks it desirable that the equivalent examinations for matriculation at the university should be as wide as possible.

“ The Sub-Committee recommends the institution, in countries where university examinations proper do not exist, of certificates delivered as proof of studies which have been carried out in a particular branch of science or group of kindred sciences. This does not imply that any traditional organisation should be abolished. These certificates should be easily recognised as of equivalent value in the different countries.

“ The Sub-Committee thinks it very desirable that States and universities should publish regularly a list of the equivalent values of courses and examinations to which

they agree and that these lists should be officially exchanged. The University Information Office should be entrusted with the duty of collecting these lists and ensuring that the exchange takes place. The same lists should be published in the *Bulletin* of the Office.

“The Sub-Committee recalls the fact that it has already passed a recommendation concerning the delivery of an international university “livret”. It is of opinion that it is desirable that this “livret” should be recognised by the competent authorities.

“The Sub-Committee considers that an international understanding concerning the definition of university diplomas would be of great value.

“The Sub-Committee, considering that the proposal of the Spanish Government implies the attribution of an international value to university degrees in order that persons possessing them may exercise their professions, which proposal appears to be impossible of realisation for the moment, and noting, on the other hand, that certain countries allow those of their nationals who have carried out their studies abroad to exercise their profession in their own country, recommends the extension of this practice in the interest of the development of international intellectual relations.

(2) *Inter-University Relations.*

“The Sub-Committee recalls the fact that it has already on several occasions passed recommendations and resolutions with the object of bringing about in the most practical manner the collaboration of universities, the easy access of professors and students from one country to another, and by these means the organisation, not of the internationalisation of universities, but of the universalisation of the higher forms of education and the creation of a great university confraternity throughout the world. The Sub-Committee recalls the fact, in particular, that it adopted a text, which was approved by the Plenary Committee at its second session and by the Council of the League of Nations (see the *Bulletin of the International University Information Office*, 1st year, No. 3 : “Inter-University Relations”, pp. 111-115).

“The Sub-Committee further is of opinion that the measures already taken by States and universities to facilitate university exchanges of every kind are already so numerous and so important that a complete table of the means actually at the disposal of the university world to effect these exchanges would soon increase this practice. It is taking steps to make known these measures as widely as possible through its Information Office. The Sub-Committee deems it, nevertheless, to be its duty, as a result of the suggestions of the Spanish Government, to propose the following new resolutions :

“1. The Sub-Committee recommends States and universities, while fully preserving their autonomy, to grant as far as possible the same value in respect of all benefits accruing therefrom to courses given by foreign professors on the invitation of the universities as to courses given by national professors.

“2. The Sub-Committee is of opinion that international scientific institutes are of first importance in promoting intellectual co-operation. It recommends those States, universities and scientific associations which possess such institutes to open them as far as possible to foreign students. It recalls the fact that these institutes ought to be regularly and generously supported financially.

“3. The Sub-Committee, with reference to a proposal concerning the course of lectures on modern nations, and desiring to draw attention once more to the exceptional importance of this proposal, recommends that schools, institutes or permanent educational organisations should be established in the principal centres. These organisations should be formed with the object of carrying out a methodical study of the great international problems of the moment and of the problems connected with the economic, political and moral life of modern nations. It recalls the fact that a beginning has already been made—for example, in the international courses delivered at the Universities of Geneva and Vienna, at the International University of Brussels, at the Academy of International Law at The Hague, international courses at the University at Chicago and the Williams College, the courses at the University of London and at the University of Aberystwyth, etc.

“The Sub-Committee proposes that these schools, institutes and organisations should maintain regular relations with each other and with the Sub-Committee in order to assure a certain unity in the general conduct of the instruction, which is of such great value in bringing about an understanding between various schools of thought, in accordance with the principles of the League of Nations. It also approves the suggestion of M. Castillejo that an organisation for instruction in the international problems raised by the new legal, social and economic state of affairs, as represented principally by the League of Nations, should be established to work in connection with the League”.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that M. Doktorowicz, of Warsaw, had written to ask for the approval and support of the Committee in regard to the establishment of an international university on the territory of the Free City of Danzig. The Committee was not qualified to give its approval or support to the foundation of a university of any kind.

The Committee agreed with the Chairman.

(b) INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY INFORMATION OFFICE.

The CHAIRMAN summarised the four questions relating to the Office, dealt with in the report of the Sub-Committee.

(1) Principles regulating the work of the International University Information Office.

(2) The Chairman of the Directing Board of the Office should be authorised to continue his personal negotiations with *Minerva* with a view to future co-operation.

(3) Appointment of M. Montessus de Ballore as expert to the Committee, to collaborate with the Office under the conditions laid down below.

(4) The Directing Board of the Office and the Committee of Experts should be invited to meet in order to discuss the possibility of concentrating, in the Office and in its *Bulletin*, the enquiry into the conditions of intellectual life.

(1) *Principles regulating the work of the Office.*

The following proposals made by the Sub-Committee regarding the work of the Office were approved by the Committee.

I.

The essential duty of the Office shall be to collect and, as far as lies in its power, to make use of information of all kinds concerning the international aspects of university life and, in a lesser degree, concerning the organisation and activities of higher education in the different countries.

The Office shall be the executive organ of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in all matters connected with university questions.

II.

The Office shall work in conjunction with national university offices and shall entrust to the appropriate national office all questions of particular interest to individual nations.

In countries in which no national office exists, the International Office shall use as an intermediary the National Committees on intellectual co-operation or, in the absence of such Committees, any other suitable organisations, such as the correspondents appointed by the International Committee, or, failing such correspondents, any other properly qualified person.

The Office shall remain permanently in touch with international students' associations and particularly with the Central Office of the international Students' Confederation.

III.

Until further notice, the *Bulletin* shall be prepared by the Director of the Office, and the Chairman of the Directing Board shall be finally responsible for the *Bulletin* and shall sign the press proofs.

IV.

The Office shall, so far as its resources and its programme permit, take part in the general enquiry concerning intellectual life.

V.

The Office shall be placed under the direction of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which shall approve the annual report, appoint the Directing Board, reserve the right to assign to the Office any task which it may think fit, and, in general take all important decisions concerning the work of the Office.

VI.

The Provisional Directing Board was appointed, and its powers and duties defined, by the Committee in its resolution of December 8th, 1923.

The Board was constituted on an international basis, namely, the representation of the main linguistic groups.

VII.

The Provisional Directing Board is of opinion that during the present financial year its activities should consist mainly in assisting the Director of the Office in his work. Its members will therefore make every effort to co-operate with him as regularly as possible. In particular, they will obtain for him all necessary information on the questions studied by the Committee, more especially those of the exchange of professors and students, equivalence of degrees, holiday courses and international scholarships. They will take steps to carry into effect the resolution adopted by the

Committee on behalf of students from countries having a depreciated exchange. They will assist the Office in maintaining as complete a documentation as possible on the international aspects of university life in all countries with which the members of the Provisional Directing Board are in communication. They will regularly assist in the preparation of the *Bulletin* and will give the utmost possible publicity to the work of the Office in the countries with which they are connected.

VIII.

The Directing Board recommends that, with a view to promoting relations with national offices, and, in general, with a view to assisting the working of the Office, a travelling fund should be established, either from the credits at the disposal of the Office or from any resources which it may be able to obtain.

(2) *Relations with the "Index Generalis" and the "Minerva".*

The question of the draft agreement with M. Montessus de Ballore had already been discussed by the Sub-Committee at its last two sessions. The degree of contact between M. Montessus de Ballore and the Committee had almost been determined.

M. de Reynold had also proposed that, in addition to the agreement to be concluded with M. Montessus de Ballore on the subject of the *Index Generalis*, an agreement should be made with the *Minerva*, which was a very old-established German publication of the same kind.

Mme CURIE asked for what period the Committee would enter into an agreement concerning the *Index Generalis*. In the event of a change of direction, the publication might no longer possess the same scientific authority. It would be advisable, therefore, to decide for how long the Committee would enter into an agreement with this organ and to provide for the renewal of the agreement.

M. DE REYNOLD said that the relations between the Committee and the publication of M. Montessus de Ballore would be of a private nature. It had even been stipulated that on the cover of the *Index Generalis* there should be no reference to the fact that M. Montessus de Ballore was an expert of the Committee. Specific arrangements would only be made with him in respect of the mutual exchange of information. M. de Reynold proposed that the agreement be made for a period of two years.

The proposal of M. de Reynold was adopted.

M. LORENTZ asked what the attitude of the Editor of the *Minerva* publication had been with regard to the proposal of M. de Reynold.

M. de REYNOLD replied that, while M. Montessus de Ballore had himself approached the Sub-Committee, M. de Reynold had approached M. Lüdke, the Editor of the *Minerva* publication. M. Lüdke had replied very cordially, but had stated that he was not quite clear as to the method of collaboration to be adopted, though he thought the proposal was very interesting. It had been arranged that he should see M. de Reynold at Berne, but his journey had had to be postponed till November or December 1924. M. de Reynold would communicate with M. Lüdke again in September.

(3) *Appointment of M. Montessus de Ballore as expert of the Committee, to collaborate with the International University Information Office.*

The agreement with M. Montessus de Ballore was approved in the following form:

" M. Montessus de Ballore, docteur ès sciences, will be appointed expert to the Committee for the purpose of collecting annual statistical information of all kinds regarding the universities, colleges, academies, archives, libraries, scientific institutes, botanical and zoological gardens, museums, observatories and learned societies in all countries. He will apply for such information on behalf of the International University Information Office and will forward it to that Office, arranged in a methodical manner and ready to be utilised, in a form which will be established in detail by the Director of the Office in consultation with M. Montessus de Ballore. The Office will be entitled to make use of such information for individual communications to institutions or private persons, but not for purposes of publication, as M. Montessus de Ballore will retain the sole right to reproduce the information in a collective publication for which he will assume sole responsibility. The Office will forward to M. Montessus de Ballore, for his publication, all information which it may receive from other quarters and which it may think fit to communicate to the public by this channel."

(4) *Publication of the "Bulletin" of the Office and other Documents of the Committee.*

The CHAIRMAN reminded the Committee that the Sub-Committee had recommended that the Office *Bulletin* should appear every two months in one issue of 48 pages. He added that the Sub-Committee had had to examine the possibility of making this publication cheaper, notably by giving facilities for advertisements. A competent official of the Secretariat might study the question.

The Committee approved the above recommendation of the Sub-Committee.

M. DESTRÉE, while declaring himself in agreement with the Sub-Committee, wished the general question of the publications of the Committee to be put on the agenda of the next session. It was essential to know whether the Committee was, to a certain extent, independent in this matter, or whether its publications were included in the publications of the League of Nations. Perhaps there was already a tradition on this subject and the demand for independent publications would be rejected, but it would perhaps also be possible to secure this independence.

The CHAIRMAN proposed that the competent official of the Secretariat should submit proposals at the next session of the Committee.

The proposal of the Chairman was adopted.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that the Sub-Committee had decided that the publication of the results of the enquiry into the conditions of intellectual life should be considerably restricted, and that they should no longer be published as separate pamphlets. The next reports would be inserted in the *Bulletin* of the Office, a procedure which would enable considerable economies to be effected.

M. DESTRÉE declared himself in agreement with the provisional restriction of the publication of the results of the enquiry, but he insisted that the Committee should not be bound in the future by this decision, and that it should be clearly understood that only the scantiness of its financial resources had compelled it to adopt this policy. The reports were interesting but were not entirely in conformity with the nature of the *Bulletin*. It would be advisable, therefore, to make it possible to revert to the system of separate publication.

M. de HALECKI recalled the fact that, in the course of one of its meetings, the Committee had decided, as an exception, to publish separately the report of M. de Castro.

The CHAIRMAN said that it was clearly understood that the report in question would appear separately.

M. de REYNOLD added that the publication of the other reports which had been announced should for the moment remain an open question.

The SECRETARY explained that lists of necessary books and other documents had been sent by the countries with a depreciated exchange to be published in the *Bulletin* of the Office, as had been decided by the Sub-Committee. The library of Vienna University alone had, however, sent a list which was long enough to fill a good part of the *Bulletin*. Certain institutions in Budapest had sent a list of chemical products of which they were in need. If the decision of the Sub-Committee had been followed to the letter, the *Bulletin* would have assumed the form of a catalogue. The Sub-Committee had, therefore, adopted a counter-proposal, to the effect that lists of this kind should not be published in the *Bulletin*.

The proposal of the Sub-Committee was adopted.

(c) MEETING OF THE DIRECTORS OF THE INTER-UNIVERSITY NATIONAL OFFICES.
REPRESENTATION AT THE CONGRESSES OF WARSAW AND PRAGUE.

The SECRETARY read two proposals made by the Directing Board of the Office, one relating to a meeting of the Directors of the Inter-University National Offices, and the other to the representation of the Office at the Congress of the International Federation of Students, which had been summoned to meet at Warsaw in September 1924. The text of the proposals was as follows :

I. Taking as a basis the former resolutions of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, the Directing Board attaches a special importance to the establishment of regular and close collaboration with national university offices and similar institutions.

With this object in view, it proposes that the University Sub-Committee should organise a meeting to which would be invited the Directors of these offices as well as representatives of certain national committees which are at the moment establishing University Offices in their respective countries.

This meeting, which, as far as possible, shall take place during the year 1925, ought to be prepared :

(1) By visits of the Director of the International Office to the principal national offices ;

(2) By enquiries addressed to all the offices, which should be consulted as to whether such a meeting was opportune as well as on a limited number of definite questions to figure on the agenda. Among these questions, the Directing Board desires to mention the following at the moment :

(a) Collaboration of the national offices in the editing of the *Bulletin* of the International Office and its circulation.

(b) Relations with individual universities through the intermediary of the national offices.

(c) Development of university co-operation with countries encountering special difficulties of a geographical, linguistic or economic character in this field.

- (d) Encouragement of the creation of new national offices.
- (e) Individual proposals by the Directors of national offices.

II. The Directing Board draws the attention of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to the invitation which has been sent to it to send a representative to the Congress of the International Confederation of Students to be held at Warsaw in the month of September next.

In view of the importance of this Congress, the Directing Board is of opinion that it is very desirable that the Committee should accept this invitation. It considers it to be particularly desirable that the meeting of the Directing Board of the Office should take place at Warsaw during the Congress, should the budget of the Committee permit, or, at least, that several members of the Committee should be able to follow the deliberations of this great international assembly.

The CHAIRMAN recalled that the Sub-Committee had agreed to both proposals. The meeting of the Directors of the national offices seemed to be very advisable, and would enable means to be studied to increase the distribution of the *Bulletin* of the Office.

M. LORENTZ, while recognising the expediency of a meeting of the Directors of the national offices, was of the opinion that this meeting would perhaps be premature in 1925, the date proposed in the report of the Sub-Committee. It would perhaps be more useful if the meeting took place when the University Information Office was more developed and its *Bulletin* better known. The Office had, at the moment, very scanty resources at its disposal, but it would certainly develop in the future. It would perhaps be better for the meeting of the Directors of the national offices to take place in 1926.

M. de REYNOLD recalled the fact that there were very few national offices, the total being only about ten. The meeting of the Directors would therefore only be small. On the other hand, since the Sub-Committee was to establish relations with them, and as this had already been done individually, it would be useful for the meeting to take place in 1925.

M. LUCHAIRE said that he was in agreement with M. Lorentz. The meeting of the Directors would certainly be useful and necessary, but, as there were not as yet national offices in all the countries, and as the existing offices differed in character and as their programmes did not always coincide with that outlined by the Committee, it would be advisable to undertake preparatory work for the meeting of the Directors, notably by personal visits, which could be made by the Chairman of the Directing Board and the Director of the Office. This would be a long and complicated task, which could hardly be completed in 1925.

M. de HALECKI said that he was partly responsible for the proposal, but drew attention to the fact that the second article contained guarantees, since it provided for the Directors of the national offices being consulted as to the advisability of the meeting. M. de Halecki added that he had also been influenced by the needs of the countries which he had studied. In these countries, national offices were in process of being established in conformity with the request addressed to them by the Committee. It would, therefore, be of use that they should profit from the experience of those offices which had already been established, by coming into touch with their Directors.

The CHAIRMAN proposed that the meeting of the Directors of the national offices should take place, if possible, in 1925. It was necessary to consult these Directors. The final decision regarding the date of the meeting could be adjourned to the next session of the Committee, when the replies of the Directors had been received.

M. de REYNOLD proposed that the Committee should authorise the Director of the University Information Office to visit the principal national offices and to make enquiries, as had been suggested in the report of the Secretary on the work of the Sub-Committee for Inter-University Relations.

M. de HALECKI said that, if the Directors of the national offices were in agreement to meet in 1925, it would be advisable not to exclude the possibility of deciding on this meeting before the next session of the plenary Committee, which would not take place until July 1925. The adjournment of the meeting until 1926 would thus be avoided.

The CHAIRMAN proposed that it should be decided that the meeting should not take place until it was considered to be entirely advisable.

The proposals of the Sub-Committee were adopted, subject to the above observation of the Chairman.

After an exchange of views, the Committee decided to ask M. de Reynold, M. Luchaire and M. de Halecki, members of the Directing Board of the Office, to be good enough to represent the Committee at the Congress of the International Federation of Students summoned to meet at Warsaw in September 1924.

M. William MARTIN recalled the fact that the Committee had adjourned the question as to its representation at the Congress which would deal with the question of the campaign against the unemployment among intellectual workers, and which was to be held at Prague on September 30th, 1924. He explained that the International Association for the Campaign against Unemployment among Intellectual Workers, which had summoned this Congress, was

a very old-established Association, which had played an important part before the war in the social movement from an international point of view.

The Association had resumed its activities after the war, and had held a Congress in Luxemburg in 1923, in the course of which the question of the unemployment of intellectual workers had been very exhaustively studied. Since the Association had not been able to arrive at a decision in the course of this last Congress, it had adjourned the study of the question until the next Congress, which would meet at Prague. Several other large associations which dealt with similar problems would hold their meetings at Prague at the same time, and it seemed that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should be represented at the Congress for the campaign against unemployment among intellectual workers.

The CHAIRMAN was of the opinion that it would be difficult for the Committee to be represented at all Congresses studying questions which were more or less connected with those dealt with by the Committee, but, since the Congress in question was of particular interest to the International Labour Office, it would be advisable that a representative of that Office should also represent the Committee at this Congress. This representative would naturally be M. William Martin.

Mme. CURIE supported the proposal of the Chairman. There was little reason why the Committee should be directly represented at the Congress at Prague, but it would be advisable that it should be indirectly represented by the representative of the International Labour Office. Co-operation between the Committee and the International Labour Office would in this way be emphasised.

M. LUCHAIRE also supported the proposal of the Chairman. He drew attention to the fact that the special question of the representation of the Committee at Congresses dealing with practically the same questions as the Committee had already been raised, but had not, as yet, been settled. There was a considerable number of these Congresses. When the Committee had established one or more institutes, it would be possible for it to send representatives of these institutes to the Congresses in question, but, at the moment, the members of the Committee were not numerous enough to render representation at every Congress possible. On the other hand, the question of the unemployment among intellectual workers had not been very clearly stated at the Luxemburg Congress, and it would be of interest that it should first of all be defined. It would, therefore, be preferable that the Committee should be indirectly represented by M. William Martin.

It was decided that the Chairman of the Committee should write to the Director of the International Labour Office and ask him to appoint the representative of the International Labour Office on the Committee of Intellectual Co-operation as delegate of the Committee at the Congress at Prague.

The SECRETARY continued the reading of the report of the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations.

(d) INTELLECTUAL LIFE IN CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE.

The text of the proposals of the Sub-Committee was as follows:

“ After having taken note of the results of the enquiry regarding the needs of university life in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations recommends the plenary Committee :

(1) “ To approve the resolutions adopted on the subject by the Provisional Committee of Direction of the International University Information Office.

(2) “ To entrust the Sub-Committee for Intellectual Property with the study of a scheme for the establishment of an international fund for borrowing and credit purposes, with the object of supplying professors travelling abroad for scientific purposes with the necessary sums for their expenses, as well as for the purchase of instruments indispensable to university institutes.

(3) “ To request the Assembly to invite States to grant to professors travelling abroad for scientific purposes travelling facilities similar to those which certain States have granted to groups of students.

(4) “ To authorise the Sub-Committee for University Relations to get into touch at one of its next sessions with the principal institutes established in the Western countries for the study of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, especially with the Institute of Slavonic Studies in Paris, the School of Slavonic Studies in London, and l'Istituto per l'Europa Orientale in Rome.

(5) “ To recommend to the National Committees concerned, the joint extension and development of the Instituts à l'étranger, with a view to establishing and drawing closer the intellectual bonds between the countries of Central and Eastern Europe and the Western countries.

(6) “ To encourage special conferences between the National Committees belonging to these two groups of countries with a view not only to realising the previous recommendation but, generally speaking, the former wishes of the International Committee with regard to inter-university exchanges.

(7) “ To commence the study of the problem of post-graduate scientific research which particularly concerns certain countries of Central Europe but is of equal interest for all other countries of the world.”

These conclusions referred particularly to the countries of Central Europe, though they were equally interesting in respect of other countries.

The CHAIRMAN drew attention to the importance of the seventh conclusion of the report of M. de Halecki, with regard to post-graduate research work.

M. LORENTZ did not see that it would be possible for the Committee to deal with the question of post-graduate scientific research work.

M. de HALECKI explained that, as he had pointed out in his report, it would be advisable to study methods whereby the scientific research could be made a profession to which persons, after having completed their university studies, could devote themselves exclusively. It was certainly not possible to study the problem in these terms at the moment, but the Committee might begin by collecting information as to what was actually being done in certain countries to encourage scientific research work on the part of post-graduate students. The results of these studies could be published in the *Bulletin* of the Office.

M. LORENTZ did not see how the Committee could usefully intervene in this matter.

M. de HALECKI answered that it was not a question of the Committee intervening in this domain, but of studying the means whereby it might be made easier for a student who had taken his degree to devote himself exclusively to scientific work. At the present time, if an individual wished to devote himself to this work, he had to take a position as teacher in a secondary school or as a librarian, for example. The problem was to provide workers with sufficient resources to render it unnecessary for them to adopt a profession, which necessarily occupied the greater part of their time.

Mme. CURIE was of the opinion that the question was to a great extent connected with that of scientific scholarships. These scholarships could, at present, be granted for a period and could be renewed two or three times.

Moreover, workers who had proved their ability could at once be given university posts when their series of scholarships came to an end. It was, therefore, advisable to develop the system of scholarships, especially of international scholarships. Most scholarships were national, and it was very difficult to grant them to foreigners, even to those who had shown remarkable ability. The Rockefeller Foundation certainly granted international scholarships, but, in France, most scholarships were only given to Frenchmen. On the other hand, it would perhaps be too great a responsibility to entrust a student who had taken his university degree with research work for which he was perhaps not yet fully qualified.

The CHAIRMAN thought that the question was very interesting and that it should one day be examined in all its aspects. It was certainly advisable to encourage disinterested research work but, there were serious difficulties which had to be overcome. It was admitted that scholarships should be given for primary and secondary education, but it was not generally considered to be so necessary to grant them for post-university work. This was partly due to the fact that legislators had not always a very accurate conception of the evolution of science. It was too often thought that science fell from heaven, ready made, already a finished product in all essentials, and that all that research workers had to do was to modify or add the details. People were not sufficiently ready to attribute discoveries already made to the individuals concerned.

Mme. CURIE believed that certain scholarships were granted for post-graduate work, but the conditions required to obtain these scholarships were too strict. It was generally required that the receivers of the scholarships should have already undertaken scientific work. It would be advisable that the founders of such scholarships should provide for their renewal for terms of from ten to fifteen years.

The CHAIRMAN was of the opinion that it would also be advisable to provide older men with means to enable them to devote themselves to purely scientific research.

Mme. CURIE drew attention to the fact that the regulations governing the granting of scholarships did not necessarily require that the candidates should have a university degree. She thought, however, that the regulations should be amended in such a way as to allow more liberty in the granting of scholarships.

The CHAIRMAN considered that the suggestion of M. de Halecki should be borne in mind and placed on the agenda of a future session. He drew attention to the fact that, in regard to the experimental sciences, it was relatively easy to ascertain from the laboratory work carried out by the student if he were really qualified for scientific research work, but in other sciences it was more difficult to assess the ability, as research student, of a young man who was still in the university. With regard to philosophy, for example, a first-class student, that was to say, a student who was amenable to teaching, might well make a mediocre philosopher, because the task of a true philosopher was, above all, to submit the ideas which he had assimilated to a serious critical examination and to be always ready to rebel against the teaching of his masters. Aptitude for research work in this case could only be ascertained from published works. For this reason, it ought to be possible to give encouragement to research students over a certain age to carry on research work.

Mme. CURIE thought that the Sub-Committee, after having examined the question, might come to a conclusion as to the conditions which should govern the granting of scholarships and bring them to the attention of those persons charged with the awarding of scholarships.

M. DESTRÉE was of the opinion that the proposal of M. de Halecki was not too ambitious. In point of fact, the University of Brussels already granted scholarships for scientific research work.

M. LUCHAIRE stated that the French Government was studying the possibility of establishing in the French universities purely scientific posts. The scholarship question was not, therefore, the only solution of the problem.

Mme. CURIE drew attention to the fact that the scientific posts mentioned by M. Luchaire would be very few in number. An opportunity should be given to students to show whether they were qualified for scientific research work.

Mme. Curie agreed, on the other hand, to the proposal of M. de Halecki in the following form. She proposed that the Sub-Committee on Inter-University Relations should be asked to discuss and examine the most suitable means for encouraging post-graduate scientific research work, particularly by the development and improvement of a system of national and international scholarships, and by an exhaustive examination of the conditions required by the regulations of the Foundations which, at the moment, awarded these scholarships.

The suggestion of Mme. Curie was adopted.

The conclusions of the report of the Sub-Committee were adopted.

155. Appointment of a Rapporteur.

On the proposal of the Chairman, M. de REYNOLD was appointed Rapporteur of the Committee.

156. Close of the Session.

The CHAIRMAN thanked the Secretariat for the help which it had given to the Committee. He expressed his regret at the departure of M. William Martin, who was soon going to leave the International Labour Office. He thanked him for his co-operation, and once more congratulated him upon the two interesting reports which he had drawn up.

The Chairman was also glad to note the cordiality which had invariably characterised the present session. What had been sympathy in former sessions had now become friendship. He and his colleagues had been able to establish that, in many circumstances, particularly in regard to the subject of the reply to be made to the proposal of the French Government, the different points of view had been expressed with all frankness and that each member of the Committee had listened with sympathy and gratitude to the arguments put forward by those of his colleagues who did not agree with him.

M. LUGONES thanked the Chairman, in the name of his colleagues, for the excellent manner in which he had presided over the discussions. He also reminded the members of the Committee that the Swiss Confederation would celebrate its national fête on August 1st. He proposed to his colleagues that they should rise to their feet as a tribute to the country which gave shelter to the Committee.

(All members of the Committee rose to their feet.)

M. de REYNOLD thanked the Committee for the tribute which it had paid to his country.

LIST OF ANNEXES

	Page
1. Letter from the Chairman of the Committee to the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers regarding the Question of Liaison between the Confederation and the Committee	50
2. Note by Professor Gilbert Murray on the Collation of Information regarding different Educational Systems	50
3. Letter from Senator Ciruolo regarding an Offer made by the Italian Red Cross for the Benefit of Russian Intellectuals	51
4. Report by M. J. Luchaire on the Relations of the Cinematograph to Intellectual Life	53
5. Report by M. de Halecki on the Work of the Committee of Experts regarding the Question of the International Exchange of Publications (Geneva, July 17th to 19th, 1924)	61
6. Letter from the International University Federation for the League of Nations regarding its Relations with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation... ..	67
7. Letter from the Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to the International Association of Journalists regarding the Question of the Publicity of Meetings of the Committee.	69
8. Report by M. Godet on the <i>Index Bibliographicus</i>	69
9. Report of the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property on Senator Ruffini's Scheme regarding Scientific Property.	70

ANNEXES

Annex 1.

LIAISON WITH THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF INTELLECTUAL WORKERS.

Letter from the Chairman of the Committee to the Secretary-General of the Federation, approved by the Committee on July 25th, 1924.

Geneva, July 26th, 1924.

[Translation.]

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, at its meeting on July 25th, 1924, noted the contents of your letter of July 11th.

The Committee, which was appointed by the Council of the League of Nations, has not the right to co-opt new members. It uses the term "experts" for any persons whom, on account of their expert knowledge, it may select for certain special questions.

Moreover, it adopted at the outset the rule that it should not admit private associations to take part in its meetings; it is of opinion that discussion by a limited number of persons is the main requisite for the efficient working of the Committee.

In these circumstances, it much regrets that it has not been able to accept your request as formulated.

However, in view of the fact that it often has to consider questions similar to those dealt with by your Federation, and in view of the valuable assistance which you have already given — for which the Committee is very grateful, and which it hopes will be continued — the Committee will be glad if you would send to its meetings a delegate to take part in our discussions in an advisory capacity.

The Secretariat will send you regularly the Minutes and agenda, and you will thus be able to decide the occasions on which it will be suitable for you to be represented, and to choose the persons you deem best qualified to maintain between the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and the International Federation of Intellectual Workers such contact as may be in the best interest of the aims we have in common.

(Signed) H. BERGSON,
President of the Committee on
Intellectual Co-operation.

Annex 2.

COLLATION OF INFORMATION ON DIFFERENT EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS.

Note by Professor Gilbert Murray, adopted by the Committee on July 28th, 1924.

It is suggested that the States Members of the League shall be invited to prepare, for the information of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and for subsequent publication as a League document, a concise account of the main features of their respective educational systems. Experience has shown the difficulty of obtaining, without a disproportionate amount of labour, accurate details of foreign educational systems, and it is submitted that a document of this kind comprised within the limits of a single volume would constitute an exceedingly valuable work of reference. Governments might at the same time be asked to supplement their original reports by annual resumé of their main educational developments during the past year, and these resumé would be published as an annual supplement to the main volume. There would then be available at any given moment a concise and up-to-date collection of educational information which would afford not only a basis of comparison between the educational systems of different countries but also, in the case of any particular country, a foundation upon which the student might build up a more detailed knowledge of any special aspect of education in which he might happen to be interested. National educational systems differ to such an extent that it is probably impossible to lay down any common plan for these suggested reports, and it will no doubt be found more convenient to give the national education departments an entirely free hand in their preparation. It is, however, suggested that information on the following points should in all cases be given :

- (a) The name of the department of state responsible for public education.
- (b) The main types of education provided : e.g. elementary, secondary, technical, university and continuation or adult, with statistics of the numbers of teachers and students engaged in each.
- (c) The extent to which education of various types is controlled :
 - (1) by the central authority ;
 - (2) by local authorities constituted as public bodies, e.g. city councils, provincial committees, etc. ;
 - (3) by other bodies, e.g. school foundations and university corporations.
- (d) The extent to which education of various types is financed :
 - (1) by the central authority ;
 - (2) by the local authority ;
 - (3) from private sources such as trust funds.

Information as to the authority responsible for the provision of school buildings and the source from which such provision is met might usefully be incorporated in this section :

- (e) The extent to which education is compulsory.
- (f) The extent to which education is free to all classes.
- (g) The extent to which the State controls the qualifications of teachers of various types and whether teachers are appointed directly by the State or by other bodies.
- (h) A brief account of the national provision of scholarships, with special reference to :
 - (1) scholarships tenable abroad ;
 - (2) scholarships tenable by foreigners.

Annex 3.

C.I.C.I. 117.

OFFER MADE BY THE ITALIAN RED CROSS FOR THE BENEFIT OF RUSSIAN INTELLECTUALS.

Letter from Senator Ciruolo, President of the Italian Red Cross, to the Secretary-General of the League, submitted to the Committee on July 28th, 1924.

Rome, June 20th, 1924.

[Translation.]

From April to November 1923, an Italian Red Cross Relief Mission helped, fed and cared for the inhabitants of the Lower Volga region, in the districts of Tzaritzin, Duboka, Rostoff and Astrakhan. The attached report is a summary of the work accomplished by the mission.

After fulfilling the duties entrusted to it, the Italian Red Cross set aside a further sum of 120,000 lire for the relief of Russian children and intellectuals in want. Of the funds allotted to this work, about 100,000 lire are still available. This sum might, I think, be usefully expended, when the famine is over, in supplying the needs of a class of unfortunates the provision of relief for whom is an exceedingly delicate and difficult matter. I refer to the intellectuals who, both at home and abroad, are subjected to every kind of privation as a result of the new social and economic conditions, and who are calling — often in vain — upon members of the same class in other countries for effective relief.

Unfortunately, however, the Italian Red Cross has not adequate knowledge of the most urgent requirements to enable it to afford such relief. Nevertheless, it would be glad, in a spirit of complete neutrality, to assist the Russian intellectuals who are in want in their own country or exiled abroad, whatever may be their political attitude to the new or the old régime.

I am, therefore, approaching the League of Nations in the hope that, either through the Secretary-General or through the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, it will undertake to distribute among those of the Russian intellectuals who are in the most urgent and serious distress the sum of 100,000 Italian lire, which the Italian Red Cross will place at its disposal if the League of Nations is prepared to accept this trust.

In making this suggestion I am glad to be able to demonstrate once more my sincere faith in the cause of international solidarity which the League has at heart.

I have consulted my eminent colleague, Senator Ruffini, who has encouraged me to lay these suggestions before you.

(Signed) GIOVANNI CIRAOLO.

NOTE FOR THE SECRETARIAT OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

The Supreme Inter-Allied Council, at its meeting held on August 14th, 1921, at Paris — where Italy was represented by the Prime Minister, M. Bonomi — decided to appoint a Commission, on which each State would have three representatives, to act as an International Relief Committee for Russia. The President of the Italian Red Cross Society, Senator Ciruolo, was the head of the Italian delegation on this Commission. At its meetings held on August 30th and 31st, and September 1st, 1921, at Paris, and on October 6th at Brussels, the Commission earnestly recommended the adhering Governments to encourage private societies and, in particular, the Red Cross Societies, to come to the assistance of the famine-stricken populations of Russia, and to subsidise the intervention of the societies concerned.

In pursuance of these recommendations the Italian Government adopted the proposal of the Italian Red Cross as regards the character and scope of a Food Relief Mission to be organised by the Italian Red Cross Society in Russia, and a sum of 6 million lire was allotted for the purpose in the budget of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs.

The Red Cross Society supplied an experienced staff, a competent organisation, and a large stock of relief requisites for the purpose of carrying out the important mission with which it had been entrusted.

A special Convention on the lines of the Tchitcherin-Nansen Convention was agreed upon by Senator Ciruolo and M. Worowsky, the representative of the Soviet Government at Rome. The mission, at the head of which was a medical officer of high rank, consisted, in addition to its leader, of seven officers and four privates ; it left Naples in April 1922 and embarked on a specially-equipped vessel containing the following relief stores : 1,354 tons of corn, 159 tons of rice, 130 tons of farinaceous foods, 128 tons of biscuits, 73 tons of French beans, 66 tons of chick peas, 27 tons of salt, 6 tons of 75 % flour, 175 tons of preserved meat (700,000 tins) 21,720 small tins of Armour products, 15 tons of condensed milk, 19 tons of bacon, 22 tons of oil, 7 tons of fat, 3 tons of preserved tomatoes, 715 tons of garlic, 528 kilos. of pepper, 424 kilos. of coffee, 800 kilos. of sugar, 400 kilos. of butter, 192 kilos. of potatoes, and 315 kilos. of Torrigiani products. There were 19,691 kilos. of Zambelletti products for the children, apart from the condensed milk and the flour.

The stores were transported from the port of Novorossisk to the chief town in the zone which had been assigned to us on the Lower Volga — Tsaritsin — in eight trains, each consisting of 30 wagons.

The chief field for the Mission's activity included the regions of Tsaritsin, Duboka and Rostoff, the capital of the Don and the Government of Astrakhan. In these districts our Mission distributed stores direct to the unfortunate inhabitants, after drawing up and checking the lists of those suffering from hunger. It carried out its work free of all political interference. Its activities lasted from June to the end of October 1922, during which period it distributed 7,660,335 rations and assisted 96,677 persons. Before the Mission left Russia, a final ration was distributed in the town of Tsaritsin to 18,000 persons, on which they could subsist for a further period of 25 days : 112 tons of flour, 35,000 small tins of preserved meat, 1 ton of salt, and 800 kilos. of foodstuffs for children.

The Mission took with it to Russia, for the sanitary needs of the population, medicaments corresponding in volume to four railway wagons, and weighing 36 tons ; it distributed medicaments in the various zones assigned to it, supplying 80 sanitary establishments and organisations, hospitals, first-aid stations and children's homes. It installed a general ambulance at Tsaritsin, which it entrusted, on leaving the country, to the Swiss Red Cross Mission. All the sanitary supplies and clothing were given to the town of Tsaritsin.

At Rostoff, in the Kuban district, first-aid stations and refugee camps were organised, at which there was a daily attendance of about 1,800 persons who were fed and disinfected before being sent back to their place of origin. In these refugee camps the following supplies were distributed : 10,000 metres of clothing material, 3,800 blankets, 4,500 woollen vests, 7,000 quintals of soap, and 65 barrels of cod-liver oil.

The camps and the sanitary establishments connected therewith were, at the express desire of the population, who recognised their great utility and importance, handed over by the Italian Mission to the Pontifical Mission.

Annex 4.

RELATIONS OF THE CINEMATOGRAPH TO INTELLECTUAL LIFE.

Memorandum by M. Julien Luchaire, submitted to the Committee, and Resolutions adopted by the Committee, on July 28th, 1924.

I. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CINEMATOGRAPH.

The development of the cinematograph is one of the most important movements in the history of intellectual life during the last twenty years. In that short space of time the conditions which stimulate and nourish the imagination, feeling and thought of the masses in every country have been transformed by this new invention ; the influence exercised by the cinema on the populace can only find a parallel in that of the theatre in the cities of ancient Greece and that of the daily Press in modern nations since the nineteenth century.

According to approximate estimates which probably fall short of the truth, there are now at least 50,000 cinema halls in the world. Taking the average number of spectators in each cinema to be 300, and remembering that each picture is usually repeated ten times, a film which goes all over the world, as many do, is seen in a relatively short space of time by 150 million persons.

Never at any time has any product of human thought enjoyed so widespread and rapid a circulation.

Undoubtedly the impression made upon this enormous public is superficial compared with the influence of certain books which have taken years or centuries to impress themselves on a part of the human race — certain sacred books, for instance — and which have profoundly affected its thought, but it is a striking fact that only the Bible and the Koran have an indisputably larger circulation than that of the latest film from Los Angeles.

Moreover, while it is true that the success even of the best films is as short-lived as it is immense, the productions of the cinema, taken as a whole, exercise a constant influence. The mass of the public has a veritable passion for the cinema. The favourite literature of these classes of the populace, i.e., serials or novels in instalments, is in process of being transferred to the cinema ; after having for a time provided the basis for a large proportion of cinematographic production, the popular novel has now become the servant of the film, for which it acts as advertisement and explanation.

To-day the lower classes derive from the cinema show (whether or not they have previously read the serial)* a large part of the emotions and thoughts which make up their mental life. In many countries nowadays, apart from the hours devoted to work, meals and sleep, nearly all the leisure time of immense numbers of people belonging to the middle and lower classes in the towns are spent at football matches or at the cinema.

Shows have always had a profound appeal for the masses. The spectacle provided by the cinema, which gives a vivid reproduction of life, and the rapid and often feverish action staged upon an immense scene in a garish light while the spectators are plunged in darkness, produce a kind of hallucination. The actors in the drama, their emotions and their actions carry conviction greater than in any other form of entertainment. The great actors, the "stars" of the cinema, receive innumerable letters from unknown admirers — a proof of the charm which emanates from their personalities, and, what is more to our purpose, from the characters they represent.

We cannot question, therefore, that the cinema is a powerful medium for the diffusion of moral, social and even political ideas or modes of thought. During the war the cinema was widely used for patriotic propaganda. It has also been adapted to religious propaganda in certain countries ; in the United States, it is estimated that about twenty-five thousand churches use the screen as an adjunct to the pulpit. In many countries schools employ it as an aid to education, and it is used in science not only for demonstration but for experiments.

There is a further reason why the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should include the cinema within the scope of its activities : this new and extraordinarily efficient instrument of intellectual action is intrinsically international.

Differences of language, which form a barrier between men, do not exist for the cinema. Moreover, conditions in the cinema trade are such that, if a film is to pay, it must be saleable in every country, or at least in a very large number of countries. Authors and producers are thus obliged to compose their works in a form that will enable them to be understood and appreciated by spectators of the most varied races and countries. The consequence is that the national character of films is reduced almost to nothing, or is confined to the picturesque element ; the simplest motives, and those which have the most universal appeal, are most in favour.

These motives may be the basest or the loftiest ; and therein lies the most important problem of the cinema. Is it to have the high educational value and the elevating and ennobling influence which the theatre seems to have had on the masses in ancient Greece ? Or is it to have the debasing influence of vulgar music-hall shows or of cheap novels ? Doubtless, its influence will be in both directions, for so vast and varied a mass of production must inevitably contain some admixture of evil with the good. No man can attempt to control the colossal cinematographic industry of our times any more than he could endeavour to control the vast activities of the printing-press. Nevertheless, in the former as in the latter case, good influences acting

in harmony, and the intervention of high authorities, may be of some avail in increasing the proportion of good and diminishing that of evil. An attempt can be made to draw up a programme of international action in this sphere ; we will endeavour in a moment to sketch the salient points of such a programme.

First, however, we must settle a question to which critics of great authority have for a long time past given the most pessimistic replies. Is not the cinema, by its nature and purpose, condemned to vulgarity, except in its scientific or educational aspects ? No : after what has been achieved during the last few years in the principal producing countries we are bound to recognise that the cinema can and should be a great art while at the same time remaining a popular art. This is now an incontestable fact, and opens up one of the most hopeful prospects ever revealed in the intellectual history of mankind. Apart from a very few poems, only the great masterpieces of architecture have been able to combine perfect beauty with that simplicity which alone can gain the comprehension and love of the humblest intelligence ; and both these forms of art are so far restricted by their local character as to be inaccessible to a large section of the human race. The mere possibility that the cinema might become a great new universal art should earn it the attention of all who have the intellectual future of humanity at heart.

The invention of the cinematograph is only thirty years old ; it was led up to by less than half a century of experiment, the importance of which was purely mechanical. It was not until the opening years of the twentieth century that the invention of the machine for unrolling perforated films heralded the advent of a new art. It would be unjust to reproach this art for its infantile incoherence ; we may rather congratulate ourselves on its quick development. Indeed, its extraordinary success has obliged it to outgrow its strength ; a limited organisation has now to cope with an immense production, as the public demands new films every week ; and it is, of course, inevitable that a production which can reach millions of spectators in a single week cannot remain on the programme for long. This excessive strain on cinema producers has unfortunate effects on the standard of plot and production and on that of the actors themselves, who have to be hastily recruited without having time to gain experience which could be acquired in normal circumstances.

The art of the cinema involves the most complicated processes. A considerable movement of capital is caused by every undertaking, whether old or new ; it is estimated that in the United States, where the cinema is already the third national industry in financial importance, from four to six new companies spring up daily. Statistics, dating back some time, show that in the course of 12 months the capital invested in new cinema enterprises exceeded the following figures :

United States.	\$26,000,000
Sweden	35,000,000 crowns
England	£ 2,000,000
France	20,000,000 francs
Italy.	35,000,000 lire

(company undertakings only, excluding a very large number of private enterprises).

At present, even in France, where the available capital is very limited, it is not unusual for from 3 to 4 millions to be spent on the production of a single film. Few are the enterprises, even theatrical, in which similar sums are involved. Nor does there seem to be any limit to the favour with which capitalists regard the cinema. Whatever difficulties this industry may encounter in certain directions, to which we will refer below, it is supported by the favour of the public, which grows from year to year, and the movement of capital in the industry cannot therefore fail to increase. The total takings of cinema theatres in the United States rose from about 75 million dollars in 1919-20 to over 90 millions in 1920-21, an increase of more than 20 % in one year.

An immense reserve of capital is therefore at the disposal of an industry whose influence on the intellectual life of mankind is already great and may become still greater.

If we consider the cinema as a pictorial art and a factor in the artistic education of the public, we shall find that it gives earnest of progress in several directions. It has transformed the scenic representation of architectural subjects and interiors. As its resources are not limited like those of the theatre proper, it is able to obtain much vaster, bolder and more complete effects. Instead of painted perspective, a whole street or square, in three dimensions, is set up in the studio ; art has at its service almost the whole realm of reality and a much wider scope for imagination. Moreover, as the scenery has only to be erected once, the scene can be changed indefinitely ; the number of different views placed before the public in two or three hours of entertainment is therefore increased ten, twenty, or even a hundredfold as compared with the theatre. It may even be thought that film authors are nowadays excessively liberal in this respect, but it must be recognised that they provide their public with a feast of the eye which must have a profound effect in forming their visual taste ; they undoubtedly enrich it, and awaken this taste in many people who rarely go to the theatre.

Moreover, the cinema makes use of actual reality, which the theatre was never able to do. It employs it in its commonest as in its rarest aspects. It arouses the curiosity of the public by presenting strange and distant scenes ; and it educates their taste by showing them the beauty of everyday scenes, which they had not always realised ; a skilfully chosen point of view or a clever arrangement of lights may reveal an unsuspected grandeur in the scenes of ordinary life.

The fact of appearing on the screen and of taking part in a play transforms and idealises the most common objects ; and this constitutes an artistic lesson for the lower classes, who rarely have an opportunity of seeing real works of art, and very often cannot understand them when they do. Modern literature and drama have attempted to achieve such transfigurations, but how contemptible are their efforts compared with the possibilities of the camera !

One of the chief resources of the cinema in influencing the visual artistic sense is its power of successively presenting images of quite different sizes : distant horizons followed abruptly by highly magnified details. This is not always done with proper moderation ; wisely used, however, it is one of the most powerful instruments ever put into the hands of Art.

The hundreds of varied scenes which a single well-constructed film places before us are living scenes : flowing rivers, leaves fluttering in the breeze, clouds sailing across the sky — all form the background for the clash of human emotions. The reproduction of reality is almost perfect ; it will soon be absolutely perfect, since the application of colour photography to the cinema is now merely a matter of adjustment ; moreover, in the present state of the technic of lighting the representation of reality in black and white scarcely disturbs the imagination. Both the illusion and the effect are overwhelming.

It has been said that they are *too* overwhelming, and that this marvellous power is just what prevents cinematography from being a great art. The object of this argument is to bring cinematography into the same contempt as that from which photography has never quite escaped. But there can be no comparison between the resources or difficulties of animated photography and that of static photography. Even the latter produces works of real art : the choice of a subject and the manner in which the photographer sees and conceives it are true artistic processes. In the latter part of last century, photography formed the artistic education of many people.

Cinematography, however, makes much greater demands on the artistic sense. The planning of so many scenes requires from the author an effort of the imagination in the process of which he may attain greatness. Then, in order to construct a scene, whether it requires a set piece or a selected spot, the producer has a most complex task ; he must view the scene as a whole like a decorative painter, attend to detail like a painter of *genre*, control and move crowds much greater than any theatrical stage-manager has ever handled, and regulate attitudes and facial expressions with the minute attention to detail rendered necessary by "close-ups". The actors themselves, though no longer bound by the spoken word, must develop the mimetic art to its utmost limits ; and the widely varied conditions in which they are called upon to act demand immense versatility. Apart from these main factors, there are the draughtsmen, the decorators, the specialists in furniture, draperies, costumes, posters and even titles and sub-titles, to say nothing of the lighting specialists ; in short, the cinema theatre involves a great collective effort for the creation of a complex work of art in which extreme realism must be combined with extreme imaginative effort.

This is not the place to consider what are the rules of the cinema regarded as a dramatic art. The critics usually agree in saying that they must be very different from those of the traditional theatre, and that they are not yet definitely established. It would appear that the "plastic" aspect of this adolescent art has made more rapid progress than its "dramatic" aspect. The chief point to note is that the screen also has great possibilities in connection with the presentation of human actions, passions and even thoughts. For the life of mankind can be represented on the screen in many aspects that the old theatre could not attempt to reproduce ; both comedy and tragedy have already taken on new forms, but in this sphere the era of discoveries has scarcely begun.

It is hardly venturesome to assume that when colour-photography and the synchronisation of the cinema with the phonograph have been accomplished, as they undoubtedly will be, the cinema will tend in a large degree to replace the old theatre, and will certainly outstrip it in variety and scope. It will be *par excellence* the theatre of the masses ; it will have penetrated into the remotest regions of the globe and into the smallest village, and will thus arouse the mirth and emotion of the whole human race.

It is essential, therefore, to consider without delay what can be done to ensure that its influence will at the same time be moral and instructive. It is quite clear that at present the choice of subjects and the spirit in which they are treated are not wholly satisfactory from this point of view. But here we must make a distinction. The cinema shows of today (for the moment we are not speaking of educational and scientific films) are generally instructive for ignorant people. They see countries and habits of life of which they had never heard, and historical reconstructions which, even if not wholly accurate, are at least suggestive ; they see a thousand aspects of human activity which, in the narrow circle of their daily life, had not come within their purview ; in the news films they witness important events all over the world.

Morally, also, the cinema of today contains both good and evil. The modern film is hardly ever immoral as music-hall shows are immoral ; it is rarely indecent. This is saying a great deal ; but films full of silly sentimentality or of fantastic adventures occupy too great a place in the annual output of the principal companies. Stories of "crooks" are also much too frequently shown. In short, the cinema, while far removed from the music-hall, bears too great a similarity to the popular melodrama and to the theatre of

the suburban and plebeian quarters of the large towns. The cinema has no big central theatres reserved for high-class productions ; picture palaces situated in the centre of large towns have appreciably the same programme as will subsequently be shown in more remote cinemas. This will probably always be the case, as the film must have a public running into millions. But it is to be hoped that films of real æsthetic value will become more numerous ; the art of the cinema can reconcile its desire to please the crowd with the ambition to maintain a certain intellectual standard. If the best methods have not yet been found, the search for them should be encouraged. The object of what has been said above is to demonstrate the necessity of providing such encouragement in certain forms — a matter with which we shall deal more fully below.

II. USE OF THE SCREEN IN EDUCATION.

The Committee is particularly interested in the scientific and educational use of the cinematograph. Here again we realise that this new art is still very young. In the field of scientific research it is clear that there are great prospects for an instrument which can show biological phenomena in full activity. But to adapt it to each separate branch of science is a difficult business, involving extended and costly experiments. The screen has already been turned to good account, particularly in astronomy and biology ; Dr. Commandon's experiments in France are well-known. No methodical research seems, however, to have been undertaken with a view to extending the use of animated pictures to every branch of science in which they could be employed. In the last section of this report we shall advert to some proposals which have been made for the creation of cinematograph conservatoires or institutes.

It is safe to assert that cinematograph apparatus will soon have become one of the most valuable adjuncts to zoology, ethnology and geography ; nor can history do without a perpetual evidence of the aspect of contemporary events and a permanent record of the most dramatic moments in the lives of nations. Here again, it is desirable that historians should agree upon a method of selecting and preserving those pictures which will be of the greatest historical value.

We shall dwell at greater length on the school cinema, which might develop very rapidly if the Governments or institutions concerned would take the proper steps ; and we shall see that, on certain points, an international agreement might be contemplated to secure this object.

The French Government, among others, has given attention to the problems raised by the educational use of the cinema ; and in 1915 it appointed an "Extra-Parliamentary Committee to enquire into the means of extending the use of the cinematograph in all branches of education". The members of this Committee were recognised authorities in science, education and the cinema industry. It concluded its work in 1920 with a report, the main passages of which are annexed. The report deals with the question in all its principal aspects, and may form a useful basis for discussion and for the drawing-up of the proposals. Certain of its conclusions may be briefly examined here.

In the first place, the report advocates, in principle, the use of the screen at every stage of education. It is quite true that moving pictures may be as valuable in demonstrating the most delicate scientific processes as in the most elementary teaching. A child can learn from the film to distinguish the appearance and behaviour of different kinds of animals, so that he can remember what they look like when alive. The movements of the most complicated surgical operation can be gone through time after time before a medical student, until he can repeat them unhesitatingly and without possibility of error. It must, however, be realised that the screen is not to be used in the same way in every branch of education — a point which is perhaps insufficiently emphasised in the French report. That "the cinema must not displace personal teaching, but must be an adjunct to it, and purely cinematograph classes must not be held" is a truism, but the importance of the screen as an adjunct may vary, and it may be used in widely different ways for the teaching of different subjects.

We put forward a few suggestions which might indicate the proper course of the development of the school cinema, or, at least, provide a useful basis for discussion.

(1) First of all, "the Cinema in Schools" is not the correct expression to use. We should rather say "the Screen in Schools", because in very many cases it is essential for the picture to remain static before the pupil's eyes. In point of fact, the best school apparatus now gives an ingenious combination of fixed and moving pictures ; but in the school films in use the two kinds of picture are not always judiciously proportioned. There seems to be a preconceived idea that moving pictures are preferable to, and better than, the fixed kind. This is by no means true, particularly in education.

(2) All objects and scenes which the pupil is intended to watch and remember in movement should be shown in movement, now that it is possible to do so. Illustrations in text-books representing objects and scenes which ought to be seen in movement should be absolutely banned, as giving a distorted impression of the actual facts.

(3) Generally speaking, the tendency should be to substitute the cinema picture for the picture on paper, because the latter is always imperfect and often difficult to understand, particularly for small children. Accordingly, the series of pictures to be shown at each lesson should be connected as closely as possible with the book used for the lesson. Though the screen cannot take the place of the teacher, it can to some extent displace the book, and should, at all events, be used in combination with it.

(4) Consequently, the use of the screen at special lessons entirely devoted to a species of cinematograph show is to be discouraged, as being educationally a mistake. The screen should be used in combination with teaching, and it should be possible to use it in the place where teaching is ordinarily given, whenever it may be of advantage — if necessary for a very short time. It should also be possible to go back to the beginning of the picture several times over.

(5) The screen cannot be worked on these lines unless inexpensive apparatus and films are used in elementary and secondary schools, so that every class in every school can soon have its own cinematograph. The easiest apparatus to handle will be the best for schools, and at the same time there must be no risk of fire. If it is to do its proper work the apparatus must quickly become a thing in daily use, like the book or the blackboard, and the pupils must be able to handle it as easily as the teacher.

(6) The mode of using the cinema in schools must be improved, having regard to the fact that it can act upon the mind of the spectator :

- (a) By absolutely faithful presentation of the subject ;
- (b) By the representation of the subject simplified ;
- (c) By the representation of the subject in sections ;
- (d) By the representation of the subject intensified (magnified, repeated, speeded up, slowed down, built up by degrees, or superimposed).

These different methods must be employed according to a logical scheme, taking into account the subject to be dealt with and the age of the pupils.

(7) It must be more particularly realised that the screen is not merely an improved method of demonstrating and explaining, but is also a valuable means of suggestion. It will be so used at all stages of education, whenever it is desired to accustom the pupil to certain movements, or rapidly to instil certain forms of knowledge which do not require deep thought. Generally speaking, the screen will be used as a time-saver — often a valuable one — in the teaching of all subjects which depend largely on visual memory.

(8) In order to economise effort and save expense in making films, and to derive the maximum profit from them, it is advisable to decide definitely to what extent photographs of life and photographs of representations (animated or fixed, maps, plans and diagrams) are respectively to be used.

The principles which govern methods being settled, an agreement must be reached on certain principles of organisation, and, in particular, the best form for an international arrangement must be found. On this point the “ International Committee on Cinematographic Teaching in Universities ”, appointed by the Swiss Students’ Federation, has, in connection with scientific educational films, made some valuable suggestions (see letter from the Chairman of the League of Nations Committee on Intellectual Co-operation dated July 1st, 1924). It points out :

“ That the number of really scientific films on the market is very small, and that some of them are very expensive ;

“ That most of the valuable films were made by professors for their own research work or lectures, so that there is often only one copy in the collection of some university institute, and in case of fire such films would be lost for ever ;

“ That there is in no case any official proof of authors’ rights and priority rights in these films, or any check on the fulfilment of the conditions imposed by the author for their being shown ;

“ That work may be wasted on re-making a film which already exists, though its existence is not known owing to the absence of any register giving descriptions of the existing scientific films ;

“ That, as scientific films are generally very expensive to produce and have a limited public, the production of such films should be encouraged by all possible means. ”

In view of these considerations, the International Committee on Cinematographic Teaching in Universities puts forward the following proposals :

1. That an International Bureau for Cinematographic Teaching in Universities be established.

2. That an international catalogue of scientific films be compiled. It would contain the following particulars : length of film, date on which taken, name of author, name of institute or firm by which taken, together with a short description by the author and details as to possibilities of purchase, hire or exchange. This catalogue would follow the Brussels system of decimal bibliographical classification, in the form of a card index.

3. That the catalogue be published and placed on sale.
 4. That periodical reports be issued to inform subscribers of all additions and alterations to the catalogue.
 5. The International Bureau will publish periodical reports on all questions connected with the manufacture and distribution of scientific films, and also on its own work.
 6. The International Bureau will take all possible steps to encourage relations between university bodies making films for purely scientific purposes (not on a commercial basis) and wishing to exchange such films.
 7. The International Bureau may, if requested to do so, give technical advice to institutions making university films.
 8. The International Bureau will enforce the fulfilment of any conditions which the author may lay down for the presentation of his films. When the International Bureau has justified its existence and demonstrated its advantages, it might extend its field of work in the following directions :
 9. It would acquire films which should, if possible, be sold or hired at cost price to the various university institutions.
 10. It will take action in all questions connected with films which are required by universities etc. but which were made as commercial propositions. It will endeavour to secure these films on the most advantageous terms.
 11. The administrative expenses of the International Bureau will be met by members' subscriptions and by donations.
 12. The Bureau will encourage the formation of national and local committees for cinematograph teaching in universities, and will support all endeavours to obtain national or local funds for the manufacture of scientific films.
- It will in all cases give advice upon the choice of films, the purchase of apparatus, and all other questions connected with cinematographic teaching in universities.

This appears to be an excellent scheme. We would only point out that the expenses of the Bureau would be considerable, and under present circumstances it might be difficult to meet them. Meanwhile, proposal No. 2 (international catalogue of scientific films) could be carried out at once. The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might authorise the International Committee on Cinematographic Teaching in Universities to approach all the institutions concerned on its behalf with a view to obtaining the information required ; and the first catalogue might be issued as an annex to the *International Bulletin of University Information*. This would undoubtedly have excellent results.

In the case of films for elementary and secondary education, the problem is somewhat different. While scientific films might, in order to save time and money, be produced at and distributed from an international centre, this could not be done with instruments which are to be used for the education of the young and the adolescent, and which must therefore be adapted to the special conditions of each country. There are, however, certain steps of an international character which might be taken to encourage the development of the cinema in schools.

In the first place the Governments and institutions concerned might be informed of the observations and recommendations of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation on this question, and the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation might be invited to discuss them.

Secondly, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might arrange, as early as possible, for an international exhibition of school films in the simplest form, and might appoint a special committee to report upon it.

An international library of school films might be contemplated as a later development.

III. SCHEMES FOR AN INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATION.

It is not, of course, desirable that the Committee should confine its interest and its efforts to problems connected with the cinema in schools. As the resolution on the cinematograph adopted by the University Sub-Committee on April 30th, 1924, puts it, it would be well "to examine the means whereby, thanks to a better international *entente*, the cinematograph might exercise a fruitful influence on the development of culture".

Moreover, the cinema industry itself has realised what an advantage a good international organisation would be for the cinematograph. Of course, the interests of the representatives of the industry and those of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might not always coincide. There is, however, much that is of value in the suggestions embodied in the resolutions of the last "International Cinema Congress", although they are concerned much more with the protection and development of the art of the cinema than with its improvement, whereas the Committee's business is just as much with the means of improving cinema productions as with the means of increasing their number.

Apart from this, however, we may observe that the representatives of the cinema industry are specially interested in the following points :

(1) The protection of the property rights of authors and publishers of films. On this point the Congress adopted the following recommendations :

“ That the groups affiliated to the International Congress should enquire into the possibility of inducing their respective countries to place a national mark on every film published, and should endeavour to find legal means of obtaining international protection for films. With this object the Congress decides to establish an international legal bureau for the film industry, which will study all problems in any way connected with the protection and exploitation of films.

“ That, as is done in England, authors and publishers should take concerted measures to reduce the excessive length of films, and to eliminate repetitions of scenes and unnecessary captions, which make programmes unduly long and result in their being presented much too rapidly.

“ In pursuance of this decision, authors and publishers should produce several versions of a film, but it must be understood that managers may not alter films in any way whatever without reference to the authors. It is agreed, however, that the different versions of a film will in all cases constitute only a single production. ”

It should be noted that this resolution does not deal with all the property problems connected with the cinematograph. The essence of the important question of the respective rights of authors and publishers is not considered, though it is at present causing much litigation ; moreover, it involves the much more serious problem of the relations between artistic and commercial interests in this industry.

(2) The question of taxation, i.e., that of the relation between artistic and commercial interests on the one hand and the public exchequer on the other. Complaints are made in cinema circles that the industry is in many cases extremely heavily taxed on the ground that it is very lucrative.

This point was dealt with by the Paris Congress in the following resolution :

“ The International Congress of Cinematograph Managers, in session in Paris on October 23rd, 24th, 25th, and 26th, protests against all entertainment taxes as unfair, and recommends that every country should initiate a campaign for their abolition, on the following grounds :

“ (a) The cinema has become an absolutely necessary means of recreation and amusement for the people. In times of political or economic crisis it is their one moral safeguard. In times of peace it is an unequalled medium for the diffusion of scientific knowledge and artistic taste.

“ (b) Notwithstanding the statements of the public authorities, the tax is borne by the cinema proprietor and not by the public ; it falls on the turnover and not on the profits.

“ (c) Cinema proprietors are subject not only to all the duties and taxes imposed on industry in their country but also to an exceptional additional tax in the form of the entertainment tax.

Subsidiary Resolution.

“ (d) Having regard to the financial difficulties of certain countries, the Paris Congress recommends that, where Government requirements necessitate a temporary tax, it should be a single tax and should take account of the artistic value of the production. ”

It should be noted that paragraph (a) of this resolution assumes as a fact something which is still open to debate, namely, that the cinematograph in its present phase is an admirable instrument for intellectual and moral education. As, however, the Committee is concerned to improve cinema productions in these two aspects, it may quite properly consider how to protect the cinema against extortionate taxation.

(3) The censorship. This is the question of the relations between the cinema and the political — and, to a less extent, the moral — authorities. It is a serious and a delicate question, and the Paris Congress postponed its thorough consideration to a later meeting. It did, however, recommend that in every country there should be one central censorship, and that the presentation of the film should not be conditional upon fresh authorisation from the local authorities in every town.

(4) The creation of a permanent international organisation. In the minutes of the Paris Congress we find the following resolution on this point :

“ The Congress decides to establish an International Cinema Federation.

“ All countries will be invited to join this Federation, including Germany, which, owing to existing circumstances, has not been able to attend the Congress.

“ A draft constitution has been submitted by the French Managers' Syndicate. It will be amended and approved by the International Committee, which requests the French Syndicate to add the final touches and to forward the draft to all foreign organisations.

“ A provisional committee is appointed.

“ After consulting the Technical Committee, the Congress recommends that there should be appointed a permanent technical committee of the International Federation with the following objects :

“ (1) to obtain the adoption of the standardised schedule of spare parts for the different kinds of cinematograph apparatus ;

“ (2) to organise international competitions in order to stimulate research and invention in connection with the cinematograph industry and the preservation of films ;

“ (3) to study all questions of interest in connection with the cinematograph industry.

“ The Congress considers that it is highly important to create as soon as possible a central organisation to act as intermediary between the different nations, to collect the reports sent in regarding the progress accomplished and the results attained, and to communicate them to the persons interested.

“ The Congress unanimously decides to postpone the consideration of the creation of an international organisation until the Federation at present being planned shall be in working order.

“ The Congress recommends that an appeal should be made to the representatives of the Press throughout the world, inviting them to give their attention to its efforts to secure not only the abolition of an unjust system of taxation but also the recognition of the cinema as an instrument of unequalled value for the education and edification of the masses. ”

It is clear from these declarations, and from information subsequently received, that, although a permanent international organisation is desired, it is not yet in existence. Moreover, the Paris Congress did not represent all the powers in the cinematograph world ; the provisional committee of the International Federation included no member from America, Italy or Germany. It would appear that a fresh stimulus is required.

Will the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation give this stimulus ? We think that it ought to do so. Indeed, considerable as may be the material interests involved, the intellectual aspect is even more important, and must be emphasised in any international discussion or undertaking connected with cinematography. This is desirable even in the material interests of the cinema world. At the opening of this report we attempted to show to what a pitch of development, to what almost unlimited influence the cinema can attain ; but it can only do so if its quality improves and if it justifies the public confidence. Yet signs of a certain lassitude on the part of the public have not of late been wanting.

The Committee clearly cannot itself control the interests of cinematography — even its higher interests. But it can do a great deal to see that they are placed in good hands and that the complicated problems connected with the development of this great art are considered and settled in the best possible way. It can emphatically urge that the question must be considered, and can bring about as soon as possible a meeting of the persons most competent to study it. An international cinematograph congress, which should meet at the Committee's invitation and under its auspices, would bring together representatives of promoters, producers, authors, artists, critics and directors.

The programme of this congress could be drawn up by a committee which might be appointed by the International Cinematograph Federation, and on which the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should be represented. This programme should include all questions connected with the development and improvement of cinema production ¹.

RESOLUTIONS PROPOSED BY M. LUCHAIRE AND ADOPTED BY THE SUB-COMMITTEE
FOR UNIVERSITY RELATIONS ON JULY 22ND, 1924.

(1) “ The Committee is of opinion that the publication of an international catalogue of scientific films would serve a useful purpose. It instructs the International University Information Office to come to an understanding with the Swiss Federation of Students regarding the drawing-up of this catalogue ”.

(2) “ The Committee would welcome with pleasure the meeting of an international congress of cinematography in the programme of which the scientific artistic and educational interests affected by the development of cinematography would be the first question to be examined. A member of the Directing Board of the International Office might attend such a congress ”.

(3) “ The Committee recommends the organisation of an international exhibition of scientific pictures and pictures for other educational purposes, both fixed and moving. ”

¹ In a letter to the Secretary-General of the League dated June 4th, 1924, Dr Francis S. Onderdonk, Jr., proposed the establishment of an “ International Clearing-house ”, for the exchange of information as to the best films available, by the “ Better Film Societies ” of the various countries and similar organisations in England, France, Italy, Switzerland, U.S.A., Germany, Austria and Sweden. He has approached these associations and thinks that an organisation of this kind is practicable.

Annex 5.

COMMITTEE OF EXPERTS ON THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS

(GENEVA, JULY 17th TO 19th, 1924.)

Report by M. de Halecki submitted to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation on July 28th, 1924, and submitted to the Council and the Assembly.

INTRODUCTION.

After taking note of the discussions and resolutions of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation relating to the exchange of publications, the fourth Assembly adopted a resolution whereby it requested the Council, "in agreement with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, to convene a conference of experts to prepare the eventual revision of international conventions relative to the exchange of publications of every kind: books, periodicals, catalogues, papers and theses."

At its meeting on March 11th, 1924, the Council examined this recommendation, together with an explanatory memorandum signed by M. Henri Bergson, Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. It decided that a Committee of seven experts should meet before the fifth Assembly "to consider upon what conditions the Conventions of 1886 relating to the international exchange of publications might be revised".

This Committee met at Geneva from July 17th to 19th, 1924, during which period five meetings were held. In accordance with the instructions of the Council, the following six experts received invitations from the Secretariat and were present at the meetings:

- MM. E. BACHA, Director of the Belgian Service of International Exchanges;
- V. BENEDETTI, Director of the Italian Service of International Exchanges;
- H. DORSEY, Chief Clerk of the Service of Exchanges of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington;
- O. de HALECKI, Professor at the University at Warsaw, expert member of the Committee;
- B. M. HEADICAR, Librarian of the School of Economics of London University; Honorary Secretary of the Universities Library for Central Europe;
- J. LUCHAIRE, honorary professor of the Institute at Grenoble, Inspector-General of Public Instruction, expert member of the Committee.

The last-mentioned was accompanied by M. Barrau-Dihigo, the Librarian-in-Chief of the Pharmaceutical Faculty at Paris, who was attached to M. Luchaire by the French Government.

The Council had decided that the Committee of Experts should also include an expert representing the South American countries. Unfortunately, the expert who had been chosen was unable to accept the Secretariat's invitation. In order to supply the Committee with certain information regarding the countries of Latin America, M. Cristóbal Rodríguez, a member of the Latin-American Bureau of the Secretariat, attended the meetings. It was agreed that the Latin-American Bureau should act as intermediary in order to inform the Latin American countries of the results of the Conference.

M. G. Oprescu, Lecturer at the University of Cluj, Secretary of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, acted as Secretary to the Committee of experts.

The first meeting was opened by M. Henri Bergson, Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. In his introductory speech, he explained the importance which the Committee attached to the work of the experts.

At his suggestion, M. de Halecki was elected Chairman of the Committee.

The Committee began its work with a general discussion, in the course of which the experts summarised and commented upon the preliminary reports which they had forwarded to the Secretariat. It then examined successively the four questions which had been inserted in the provisional agenda in accordance with the suggestions of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. Finally, it discussed several questions relating to the problem of exchanges. The text of the resolutions adopted with regard to the four principal questions will be found in the Annex to this report, together with the recommendations formulated in respect of various other questions. Attention should here be drawn to the fact that all the decisions of the Committee of experts were unanimous.

I. *Limitation of the Exchange of Official Publications.*

The Committee of experts considered that one of its principal tasks was that of facilitating the extension to all civilised countries of the exchange of publications, inasmuch as the Convention of 1886 had so far been accepted by only twenty States. The previous experience of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation clearly showed, however, that a large number of countries, especially those whose literary production was greatest, would never adhere to the Convention of 1886, Article 2 of which makes it compulsory for the signatories to exchange all their official publications.

On the other hand, the experts realised that any alteration in the text of the Convention of 1886 would give rise to serious difficulties at the present time and would endanger all that has hitherto been achieved in the matter of exchanges.

The Committee of experts fortunately discovered a means of reconciling these two considerations which, at first sight, would appear to be irreconcilable. While leaving Article 2 of the Convention of 1886 unchanged, it recommended that adhesions with reservations should be

accepted. States which were prepared to take part in international exchanges but which did not wish to exchange automatically all their official publications with all other States would, in addition to signing the Convention itself, sign a protocol enabling them "to restrict the quantities sent to each country by agreement with the latter". It was agreed that exchanges between these States and States which adhered without reservation to the Convention would be governed by the same principle, viz., that the latter would also not be required to send all their official publications to States which had only adhered, subject to the above-mentioned reservation. Further, new adhesions limited in this way would only come into force at the end of a year if, during that period, none of the States which signed the Convention without reservation had raised any objection.

The text of the additional Protocol proposed by the Committee of experts will be drawn up by the Legal Section of the Secretariat. If it is approved by the Council and Assembly of the League of Nations it can be communicated to all States which have not yet adhered to the Conventions of 1886, together with a further invitation to adhere to these Conventions. There is reason to hope that the chance of adhering, subject to a reservation calculated to avoid the chief objection hitherto raised by these States, will lead a large number of them to accept the Convention. In spite of the limitation of their contractual obligations thus accorded to these States, their adhesion would indubitably constitute an important step forward in the domain of international exchanges.

2. *Development of the Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications.*

While recognising that among official publications to be found in all countries there are a large number of works of a scientific and literary character, the Committee of experts, sharing the opinion of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, held that very special efforts should be made to develop the exchange of that vast majority of scientific and literary publications not included among the official publications of the various States.

In the Convention of 1886, this question was touched upon in one article only (No. 7), which lays down that the official exchange services may act as semi-official intermediaries between the scientific societies of the Contracting States for the reception and despatch of their publications — that is to say, publications which may be called "semi-official". Up to the present, nothing has been done to encourage and facilitate the exchange of "non-official" publications in the strictest sense — that is to say, those which are published neither by the State itself nor by scientific societies, universities or scientific institutions.

Naturally, the same considerations which influenced the experts when they were discussing the exchange of official publications prevented them from modifying or completing that part of the text of the 1886 Convention which refers to semi-official and non-official publications. Seeing, moreover, that the whole problem of the exchange of scientific and literary publications was barely touched upon in the 1886 Convention, the experts did not consider it desirable, in this instance, to have recourse merely to an additional protocol to be added to the text of the Convention. In the case of so important a problem, it was thought better to adhere to the method adopted in 1886 in the case of the exchange of Parliamentary documents — that is to say, it would be better to draft an entirely new Convention, which would take its place alongside the two Conventions signed in 1886, the one of a general nature, and the other referring only to Parliamentary documents.

As it is proposed that this new Convention shall be concluded under the auspices of the League of Nations, the Legal Section of the Secretariat has been requested to draft its protocol clauses. In addition to these provisions, the draft includes five fundamental articles.

The first three articles concern the exchange of literary and scientific publications in general — that is to say, no distinction is drawn between the various categories: official, semi-official and non-official publications. These articles could therefore be accepted, as could the whole new Convention, both by the States signatories to the Conventions of 1886 and by States adhering subject to the reservation referred to above.

Realising the impossibility of recommending the compulsory exchange of all scientific and literary publications — though that would clearly be the most radical and, so to speak, the ideal solution of the problem — the Committee of experts decided that it was, above all, necessary to ensure the speedy exchange between all countries of information concerning scientific and literary publications published in each country. This question is dealt with in Article I of the draft. Convention, which does not stipulate that new lists dealing specially with scientific and literary publications should be edited and published, for that would involve considerable work and expenditure; it merely recommends the exchange of all "current repertories of national bibliography of a general character" which would necessarily include scientific and literary publications. In order not to involve States in any undue expenditure, it has been agreed that each of the Contracting Parties shall remain entirely free to determine what are, in its own territory, the general bibliographical publications referred to by this article of the Convention.

In point (b) of the same article, the exchange "as far as possible" of lists giving information on the recent acquisitions of scientific libraries is also requested. The reservation "as far as possible" clearly emphasises the fact that this obligation would only concern States in which lists of this kind already appear and that there would be no question of insisting upon the publication of such documents in countries in which such lists are not at present issued. The Committee of experts attaches great importance to these exchanges, because they would also provide information regarding old publications which are no longer included in current periodical bibliographies and which certain recently established scientific libraries most urgently require. These lists would be still more useful if the example set by certain libraries were followed, and any new acquisitions which a library possessed in duplicate (and could therefore exchange or lend without inconvenience) were indicated by a special sign. It will be noticed, moreover, that the question of duplicates is referred to again in one of the later articles of the Convention.

The Committee of experts hopes, of course, that such an exchange of information concerning the works appearing in each country and accumulating in its libraries would lead to other countries formulating requests and proposals for the exchange of certain publications included in the bibliographical lists. This is the main *raison d'être* of the first article, whereas the purpose of Article 2 is to facilitate the active carrying out of exchanges.

In order that they may serve as a basis for exchange proposals, the bibliographical lists referred to in Article 1 should be easily accessible to all concerned. Paragraph (a) of Article 2, which deals with this question, does not prejudice any steps which may be taken to this end. Such documentation should, of course, be accessible, above all, to scientific bodies and institutions, including libraries, which do not publish any works themselves, and consequently cannot entertain direct exchange relations with other institutions, and, finally, to the various National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation.

The terms of paragraph (b) of the same article, the object of which is to ensure that all requests for exchanges shall be favourably received, must also of necessity be very general. It will be for the various States which have, in principle, accepted this undertaking to decide by what means the publications requested in exchange may be most readily obtained and placed at the disposal of another country. Perhaps it would be possible in certain countries in which there exists a statutory obligation to deposit books to increase the number of copies of each publication which must be placed at the disposal of the Government. Other Governments may possibly decide to devote a certain sum to the purchase of books thus required, in consideration of the fact that the works offered in exchange would go to enrich their own libraries, and, as M. Bergson rightly pointed out in his opening speech, "with regard to the exchange of publications, if a more fortunate nation gave more than it received, it would be in no way a loser because it would spread its thoughts and opinions, extend its personality and widen its influence".

The Committee of experts, however, desired to indicate at least one method which seemed to it to be particularly suitable for attaining the object set out in Article 2, and one that would be relatively easy to adopt. It is to this specific but in its opinion, quite important matter that it has devoted Article 3 of its draft Convention. It is suggested that there should be established in each country a "pool" of publications available for international exchange. In order to emphasise the fact that it would not be necessary to collect all these publications into one place, it has been expressly stated that it would be sufficient to draw up a list of such publications. It is also suggested that the publications would be collected "by gift or otherwise" in order to bring out the fact that the "pools" need not be constituted necessarily and entirely at the expense of the State itself. Each country would thus collect the works which were most important and of greatest interest to other countries, but the Committee of experts thought it wise to point out that it would be particularly desirable also to collect "the works most representative of the various types of national culture". It thought that the exchange of publications would, if developed in this direction, best serve the final aim of all intellectual co-operation organised under the auspices of the League of Nations — that is to say, the establishment of closer relations between different countries insufficiently acquainted with each other.

The list of works thus placed at the disposal of other countries would be published periodically; it would complete the documents already mentioned in Article 1, including, as it would, a list of duplicates possessed by the different libraries and available for international exchange. The Committee would have liked to add "available for international loan", but it came to the conclusion, as will be seen later, that a question so important and so complex as that of international loans required special examination and ought not to be dealt with under the same heading as that of exchanges.

Seeing that the Convention of 1886 had, as stated above, dealt with the question of exchange between scientific societies which had assumed as great an importance as the exchange of official publications, between the various States, the experts felt that the new Convention, without being in any way in contradiction with the former Convention, should, nevertheless, emphasise this point and should urge the Contracting Parties "to encourage in every way the multiplication of these exchanges". It appeared impossible to enter into any further details, but possibly this general obligation itself will encourage the States adhering to the Convention of 1886 to give Article 7 of that Convention as wide an interpretation as possible.

The fifth article of the draft Convention is one of the results of the discussion of the Committee of experts concerning the improvement of the working of exchange services—a discussion which will be referred to later. It only contains such of the proposals adopted in this connection as could be embodied in the text of an international convention. In drafting this article, the Committee felt that it had found an intermediate solution between the present situation (in which there is no regular liaison between the various exchange services nor any control of their work) and the setting up of an international bureau or committee, which would have been costly, and which the national services might not have been prepared to accept. The article, therefore, merely asks that annual reports on the working of the various services — which are already published in many countries and which should be published in all — should be communicated to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which would publish them, or extracts from them, in a general report concerning the work of the international exchanges. This publication, the form of which would be decided by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, would naturally contain no comments on the work of the various national services. It would merely register facts to be drawn from the general report; this would certainly lead to a sort of emulation between the various services and would make the efforts of each service known to the others, as well as to all persons interested in international exchanges. It was impossible to fix the date on which the annual reports should appear, owing to the fact that, at present, the date differs in various countries. Article 5 will probably of itself bring about some measure of unification.

We have no need to emphasise the importance of this draft Convention, which constitutes a first step in the direction of establishing a definite international undertaking in respect of the exchange of literary and scientific publications, which are of particular interest to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and to the Assembly of the League of Nations. If this draft is approved by the League, it may then be communicated to the various Governments with the request that they should adhere thereto, and a Protocol of Signature may be opened at the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

3. *Improvement of the Working of the Exchange Services.*

The development of the exchanges depends not only on the texts of the international conventions but also on the working of the exchange services which, in one form or another, have been created in a large number of countries, including certain States which are not signatories to the existing Conventions.

After hearing those of the experts who have themselves long been directors of important services of this kind, the Committee arrived at the conclusion that the satisfactory working of these services depends chiefly on the funds allotted to them. This is the explanation of the first recommendation adopted by the experts in this connection. They have attempted to draft it in terms as careful and restrained as possible, and any comment thereon would be superfluous.

We would say at once that the second recommendation of the Committee could only be put into effect if the budgets of the exchange services were considerably increased. The intention is that the service of the country of origin should despatch publications direct to private addressees without such documents passing through the service of the country of destination. This would clearly constitute a most effective means of ensuring that more rapid transmission of consignments which the various learned societies making use of the international service are demanding.

Funds will also be the determining factor in the solution of the third problem which the Committee of experts has had to consider. The Committee is of opinion that the budgetary resources of the exchange services should be sufficient to allow of the employment, in these services, of higher grade officials whose competence would constitute the best guarantee for the satisfactory working of the service. The Committee has noted with pleasure that this desire has already been realised in many countries. If, however, certain countries (particularly those that may subsequently adhere to the Convention and will have to establish new services) are unable to find the funds required for such appointments, it would be advisable to attach to the service a Supervisory Commission which would not involve the countries concerned in any considerable expenditure.

The former enquiries of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and in particular of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, have demonstrated once more that the provisions of the Convention of 1886 have, unfortunately, not always been strictly observed by all the signatories. The Committee of experts could do no more than formulate a recommendation of quite a general nature. To show the necessity of this recommendation it will suffice to point out, for instance, that Article 3 of the Convention, which requires the regular issue of lists of official publications — an Article which presents no particular difficulty in its application — has only been observed up to the present by a very limited number of States. The experts are of opinion that Article 5 of the new draft Convention will help forward the fulfilment of this recommendation.

4. *Free Postage.*

A counter-balance to the paucity of funds at present at the disposal of most exchange services would be exemption from postal charges. This question was thought so important that, although connected with the problem of the working of the services, it was placed on the agenda of the Committee of experts as a separate item.

The Committee of experts drew a distinction between exemption from internal and international postal charges. As regards the former, the Committee of experts was only able to express the hope that the example of States which have already accorded this privilege to their exchange services and to national consignments sent to these services may be followed by all other countries. As regards international exemption, the Committee heartily endorsed the opinion expressed on this subject by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. It was convinced that a reform of this kind was extremely desirable not only in the case of countries with a depreciated exchange but also in that of countries whose economic situation is relatively favourable. However, this raises a very complicated technical problem, and its solution does not depend merely on the States signatory to the Convention but also on the countries of transit. The Bureau of the Universal Postal Union is the only body which could have furnished the Committee of experts with all the necessary information, but unfortunately it was unable to send a qualified representative to Geneva during the time that the Committee was in session. The latter therefore decided that before it formulated a definite recommendation to the Council and the Assembly of the League of Nations the Universal Postal Union should be consulted on this point, and it hopes that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will undertake this duty.

5. *Various Recommendations.*

In the course of the discussions, many interesting suggestions were made which went beyond the scope of the programme laid down for the experts. It was thought advisable that these suggestions should at least be mentioned in a last resolution. The first part of this resolution contains

six definite recommendations¹. The last only is addressed to Governments, requesting them to make the publications which they obtain by international exchange readily accessible to research workers. The others are addressed to institutions which publish scientific and literary publications. The purpose of the first two recommendations is to ensure that every possibility of effecting exchanges is made known.

The object of the third is to render exchanges with countries whose publications appear in a little-known language more interesting and of greater benefit to both parties. The aim of the fourth and fifth recommendations is to obtain reductions and facilities for payment in cases in which ordinary exchange is impossible.

In the second part of its final resolution the Committee of experts has touched on the very important problem of the international loan of books — often a possible substitute for exchange. Being convinced that this question deserves to be examined as carefully as that of exchanges proper, the Committee of experts felt that it should not deal with the matter summarily. It confined itself to registering a non-controversial conclusion concerning the utilisation of library duplicates, and decided to ask the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to include the whole question in the agenda of its Sub-Committee on Bibliography.

CONCLUSIONS.

The resolutions adopted by the Committee of experts may be divided into two categories: first, there are a certain number of recommendations and resolutions, two of which (one concerning exemption from international postal charges, the other relating to the international loan of books) are addressed direct to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, while others are addressed to Governments and to those institutions which, in each country, issue important publications. The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might therefore request the Assembly of the League of Nations to transmit these resolutions to the various States.

These latter resolutions might be transmitted at the same time as the two first, and particularly important, resolutions which constitute the material and positive result of the Committee. It is, in fact, a question of recommending the texts of international agreements to the various Governments. If these texts receive the approval of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, the Council and the Assembly, the first — that is to say, the additional protocol to the Convention of 1886 — should be sent to States which have not yet adhered to this Convention, and the second — that is to say, the draft new Convention for the exchange of scientific and literary publications — should be sent to all States without exception. The Committee of experts would be glad if this decision could be taken by the fifth Assembly, for it considers the question a very urgent one. In every country of the world a considerable number of publications are appearing daily, which, if they were disseminated rapidly throughout all other countries, would not only contribute to the progress of science but would also help to establish that intellectual contact between nations which the League of Nations desires to ensure through the work of its Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

(Signed) O. DE HALECKI,
Chairman of the Committee.

RESOLUTIONS OF THE COMMITTEE OF EXPERTS.

1. *Exchange of Official Publications.*

States which have not yet adhered to the Convention of 1886 and which regard the obligation contained in Article 2 as imposing too heavy a burden, whether on account of the great number of their official publications or owing to their financial situation or for any other reason, may adhere to the Convention subject to the reservation that they may, in agreement with any country, limit the number of publications sent thereto. Exchanges between such States and States which have adhered to the Convention without reservation shall be governed by the same principle.

The Belgian Government is requested to notify the text of the above resolution to the States which are parties to the Convention of March 15th, 1886. These States shall at the same time be informed that any partial adhesions which may be given in accordance with the said resolution will be notified to them by the same Government as and when they occur, such adhesions to become binding only in the relations between such of the parties as accept them and the adhering States.

Any offer of partial adhesion shall be communicated to the Belgian Government and notified by the latter to each of the States which are parties to the Convention of 1886, including those which have been permitted to adhere partially to that Treaty, each of such States being invited at the same time to inform the said Government, within a year following the notification, whether it accepts the partial adhesion so far as it concerns itself. An adhesion shall be regarded as not having been accepted by any State which has not expressed its acceptance within the said period².

¹ The Committee of experts has, moreover, suggested that, according to the example set by the United States of America, the Directors of Customs should be entrusted in the various ports with the duty of forwarding to the exchange office cases containing publications arriving from abroad.

² The last two paragraphs have been drafted by the Legal Section of the Secretariat of the League of Nations in accordance with the resolution and instructions of the Committee of experts, as approved by the Plenary Committee.

2. *Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications.*

The Committee of experts decides to recommend the following draft Convention to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, it being agreed that, in accordance with the procedure usually followed in the case of conventions concluded under the auspices of the League of Nations, the Legal Section of the Secretariat shall draw up the protocol clauses thereof :

DRAFT CONVENTION.

Article 1.

Independently of the obligations which might result for each of them from the previous Conventions relative to the exchange of publications, the High Contracting Parties undertake to exchange, as fast as they are published, at least in one copy:

- (a) all the current repertories of national bibliography of a general character ;
- (b) as far as possible, documents of every kind giving information on the recent acquisitions of their scientific libraries.

Article 2.

Each Contracting State agrees to take all measures which it judges desirable:

- (a) in order to make easily accessible to all interested parties the lists communicated to it according to Article 1;
- (b) in order to secure a favourable consideration of all the proposals of exchange which might be addressed to it by all the Contracting States with regard to scientific or literary publications included in the above-mentioned lists.

Article 3.

To facilitate generally the exchange of works which are the most important or most representative of the various types of national culture, the High Contracting Parties shall collect or catalogue the publications received by gift or otherwise which are available for international exchange. They will publish from time to time a list of these works.

This list will also give the names of works existing in duplicate in libraries, which may be exchanged.

Article 4.

The High Contracting Parties undertake to encourage in every way the multiplication of exchanges of scientific and literary publications, whether State-subsidised or not, between academies and learned societies, universities and scientific institutions, as laid down in Article 7 of the Convention of 1886.

Article 5.

The High Contracting Parties undertake to publish annual reports on the work of their exchange services. These reports shall be transmitted to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which shall publish extracts therefrom, together with a general report on the work of the international exchanges during the period in question.

3. *Improvement of the Working of Exchange Services.*

1. The Committee of experts has noted that in many countries which were signatories to the Convention of 1886, and to an even greater extent in others, the working of the exchange services is considerably hampered by the smallness of the funds allotted to these services. While realising that the burdens which State budgets at present have to bear make it impossible to increase these funds to any great extent, the Committee of experts nevertheless expresses the hope that these services will be granted the sums they require in order to ensure the regular and rapid transmission of publications exchanged and a satisfactory supervision of the consignments.

2. The Committee of experts thinks it would be desirable, with a view to speeding-up the distribution of consignments, for the latter to be despatched directly to the recipients by the exchange service of the country of origin.

3. In cases in which it is impossible to employ sufficiently high-grade officials for the exchange services, the Committee of experts recommends the creation of a Supervisory Commission.

4. The Committee of experts expresses the hope that States which have accepted the 1886 Conventions without reservation will be willing to carry out all their provisions to the letter.

4. *Free Postage.*

The Committee of experts notes with satisfaction that a number of national exchange services enjoy the advantages of free postage within their respective countries and hopes that all Governments will see their way to extend this privilege to their exchange services and to publications sent to those services from within their respective countries.

The Committee of experts regards international free postage for exchange services as an essential condition of the full development of the organisation of exchange. It therefore requests the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to consult the Bureau of the Universal Postal Union as to the best method of obtaining free postage and to recommend that method to the Council and Assembly of the League of Nations.

5. *Various Recommendations.*

The Committee of experts, after considering the general problem of exchanges with a view to suggesting modifications to be made in the Conventions of 1886, finally reached certain conclusions on various points which cannot well be embodied in a draft international convention. The Committee feels that it is its duty to communicate these conclusions to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, requesting it, if it adopts the Committee's suggestions on these points, to be good enough to recommend them to all concerned.

A. The Committee of experts thinks it would be desirable:

- (1) That all institutions which exchange their publications should publish periodically a list of the institutions with which they exchange;
- (2) That learned societies should publish on the cover of the last number in each year of each of their publications as complete a list as possible of these publications;
- (3) That the publications of learned societies, if produced in a language other than the principal European languages which are most widely known, should contain summaries in one of these more widely known languages.
- (4) That scientific periodicals should grant reductions in price with a view to facilitate exchanges and subscriptions by libraries;
- (5) That, in order to facilitate the acquisition of foreign books by libraries, as many agreements as possible should be concluded on the lines of that which the Universities Library for Central Europe has concluded with the "Amba" Institute at Vienna (see Annex 5 to the published report by M. de Reynold on the conditions of intellectual life in Austria — A. 62.1922.XII).
- (6) That the libraries in which Governments deposit publications obtained by international exchange should be made readily accessible to all research workers.

B. The Committee of experts was led to consider the problem of international loans of books.

It immediately agreed to recommend that library duplicates should be utilised as far as possible for such loans.

In view, however, of the importance and complexity of the problem, it has not been able to discuss the matter in all its aspects, and it requests the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to instruct the Sub-Committee on Bibliography to conduct a minute enquiry into the question of international loans of books and manuscripts.

Annex 6.

(13C/32329X/14297)

RELATIONS BETWEEN THE INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY FEDERATION FOR THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS AND THE COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

*Letter from the Secretary-General of the Federation to the Chairman of the Committee,
submitted to the Committee on July 28th, 1924.*

[Translation]

July 24th, 1924.

You were good enough to suggest that, on the occasion of the meeting of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation at Geneva, I should send you a letter on behalf of the International University Federation for the League of Nations.

You have taken a personal interest in all our activities, for which we are particularly grateful, and we should be very glad if the whole of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation expressed its agreement with your views.

I have the honour to send you herewith the programme of the courses on the League of Nations which we are organising at Geneva this summer, together with an extract from our Quarterly Bulletin, and the Statutes of our Federation.

We venture to think that this information will be of interest to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and that, as it is the aim of our movement to spread the idea of the League of Nations and of international co-operation in University circles in all countries, the Committee may perhaps bestow on our efforts that encouragement which we should so highly appreciate.

We hope in particular that, as the International Students' Confederation has decided to invite us to take part in the Congress which it is organising at Warsaw in September, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will find occasion to avail itself of the assistance of the International University Federation for the League of Nations, and I have pleasure in informing you that this assistance will be wholly at the Committee's service.

(Signed) Robert LANGE,
*For the Executive Committee of the International
University Federation for the League of Nations.*

STATUTES OF THE INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY FEDERATION FOR THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

Article I.

An association, known as the International University Federation for the League of Nations has been established at Prague on April 15th, 1924.

Article II.

The Federation shall consist of national university groups, entirely independent of internal political parties, their object being to study the work of the League of Nations and to familiarise the public therewith, as well as to disseminate the idea of international co-operation.

Article III.

The objects of this association shall be:

(a) To co-ordinate and assist the efforts of university groups, and to obtain public recognition and support, mainly in university circles, for the principles which underlie the Covenant of the League of Nations.

(b) To study all problems and questions connected with the League of Nations or international relations.

(c) To collect documents relating to the League of Nations.

(d) To ensure close co-operation between national university groups and the Secretariat of the League of Nations, the International Labour Office, and the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

(e) To publish brochures and pamphlets for the furtherance of the cause of the League of Nations, particularly in countries in which no group exists.

Article IV.

Organisation.

An Assembly of the Federation shall be held every year. The object of this Assembly shall be to organise the activities of the Federation by establishing contact between the representatives of various groups, by the exchange of views, and by deciding upon an annual programme of action.

At the Assembly each State shall be represented by a national group. Each group shall possess a vote, the quorum being three-fifths. In order that a proposal may be adopted, the Assembly must be unanimous except in questions of procedure and of the admission of new members, in which case a majority of three-fourths shall be sufficient.

Article V.

Each national university group shall enjoy complete autonomy as regards its internal organisation, that is to say, it shall be entirely free to organise its activity on behalf of the League of Nations according to circumstances and its special situation.

Article VI.

The Assembly:

1. Shall designate the headquarters of the Federation and the place of the next meeting;
2. Shall approve the budget and adopt resolutions;
3. Shall appoint for one year an Executive Committee and the Chairman thereof;
4. Shall appoint for one year a Secretary who shall not be a member of the Executive Committee.

Article VII.

The Executive Committee shall consist of six members including a Chairman, two vice-Chairmen and a Treasurer. The seats therein shall be allocated to the various national groups, it being understood that the candidates of groups shall be nominated by the latter before the Assembly meets.

The Treasurer shall estimate the share to be paid by each national university group according to the requirements of the directing organisations and the size and situation of each group; the budget shall be approved annually by the Congress.

Article VIII.

The Executive Committee shall lay down the principles and determine the policy of the Federation. It shall supervise the work of the Secretariat.

Article IX.

For this purpose the Executive Committee shall meet thrice annually and whenever one-half of the members of the Executive Committee and the Assembly may judge necessary.

Article X.

The Chairman, in case any urgent decision has to be taken, may act on his own responsibility on behalf of the Executive Committee.

Article XI.

The Secretariat shall:

1. Co-ordinate the work of the various groups;
2. Organise propaganda of a general nature;
3. Take measures to ensure the formation of groups in countries in which they do not already exist.

The Secretariat shall be the central organ of the Federation.

The Secretary shall be responsible for the Secretariat.

Article XII.

Every quarter the Secretariat shall publish a Bulletin.

Every quarter each group shall send in a report to the Secretary.

Article XIII.

There shall be established at the Secretariat of the Federation a department for the collection of all documents, reports, etc., published by the various national university groups. These documents shall be circulated by the Secretary to the various groups affiliated to the Federation.

Article XIV.

Every attempt shall be made to obtain the assistance of all organisations favourable to the International University Federation for the League of Nations, and close co-operation shall be maintained wherever possible with all associations having a similar object.

Article XV.

French shall be the official language of the records and documents of the Federation.

Article XVI.

Any national group which may desire to withdraw from the Federation shall give six months notice in writing to the Secretary.

Article XVII.

The annual Congress shall possess the absolute right to modify, by a three-fourths majority, all rules and regulations.

Annex 7.

PUBLICITY OF MEETINGS OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

*Letter from the Chairman of the Committee to the International Association of Journalists,
approved by the Committee on July 28th, 1924.*

[Translation.] Geneva, July 28th, 1924.

We have received your letter of July 24th, and would beg to say that we are most anxious to meet your wishes ; we all realise how essential your co-operation is to us, and we very greatly appreciate the interest which you take in our work.

We would point out, however, that our discussions can have but little meaning for those who have not seen the reports which have led up to them, and must therefore be merely in the nature of friendly conversations, more particularly as some of our foreign colleagues only use the French or English languages out of courtesy and might feel some disquietude if they thought that what they said might be understood. As a rule, therefore, our meetings must be private, though not, of course, secret, since the Secretariat and the members of the Committee themselves will at all times be glad to furnish you with information.

At the same time we realise how inadequate this one source of information is and we have therefore decided that at the next session one meeting at least will be held in public. Our current agenda is so heavy that we have been quite unable to arrange such a meeting this year.

(Signed) H. BERGSON,
*Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual
Co-operation.*

Annex 8.

C. I. C. I. /B. /49.

THE INDEX BIBLIOGRAPHICUS

*Report by M. Marcel Godet, Member of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography,
submitted to the Committee on July 29th, 1924.*

Collection of Material.

Received up to July 20th from 28 countries	733 notes or cards,
Contribution from Germany, promised for the end of August, about	<u>200</u> " " "
Total	933 notes or cards.

Initial Work.

A start will be made at the end of September on the work of reviewing and classifying the cards, revising their wording, and drawing up the alphabetical table, etc., for printing.

Plan of the Publication.

- Title : *Index Bibliographicus*. — List of sources of current bibliography (periodicals and institutions).
- Introduction (with list of institutions and individuals who assisted).
- Part I. Catalogue of periodicals and institutions by countries. — Full notes.
- Part II. Systematic list. — The same notes abridged, with classification by sciences or special subjects.
- Part III. Alphabetical table. — Titles very much abbreviated.

Estimates.

Including what may still be received from certain countries, we may reckon on a maximum of 1,000 notes.

As the average length of a note is from 35 to 40 words, we may estimate :

For Part I	100 printed pages
For Part II	50 " "
For Part III	25 " "
For title, introduction, etc. (maximum). .	17 " "
Total	192 pages = 12 sheets of print.

Messrs. Benteli & C^{ie}, printers and publishers, Berne, submit the following estimate, at Swiss printing rates, for printing 12 sheets, 14 × 19 centimetres :

Edition	<u>1,000</u>	<u>2,000</u>	<u>3,000</u>	<u>4,000</u>	<u>5,000</u>
Francs	2,756	3,092	3,452	3,812	4,172

Bound in cloth with title printed on back and on front cover, 63 centimes a copy extra. Author's corrections, 3.50 francs.

An edition of 3,000 bound copies, with author's corrections and unforeseen expenses, would cost not more than 6,000 francs.

Messrs. Benteli & C^{ie} would be prepared to undertake the printing and *publishing* for 2,000 francs. Having paid this sum, the League of Nations would incur no further expense and no risk. It would receive 100 free copies. The published price would be fixed between 4 francs (for an edition of 5,000) and 6 francs (for an edition of 1,000).

Preliminary Notice.

As I am confident that the preparation of the manuscript can be completed this autumn, I should like to have it included in the Budget for the current year.

The simplest way would be to entrust the publication to a publisher ; but both morally and materially the League would gain by publishing on its own account. Expenses would be more than covered by sales.

The published price would not exceed 5 francs a copy (bound).

I therefore propose that the Committee should be asked for a credit of 6,000 francs for printing and that the Index Committee should be given full power to proceed in conjunction with the Secretariat.

Berne, July 20th, 1924.

(Signed) Marcel GODET.

Annex 9.

C.I.C.I. /P.I. /15.

SCIENTIFIC PROPERTY.

Report of the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property on Senator Ruffini's Scheme, and Resolutions adopted by the Committee on July 29th, 1924.

Since the meeting of the Plenary Committee at Paris in December 1923, the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property has held only one meeting, at Geneva on July 21st. The proceedings opened with a discussion on Senator Ruffini's scheme.

SENATOR RUFFINI'S SCHEME REGARDING SCIENTIFIC PROPERTY.

(1) *Replies of the Governments.*

M. RUFFINI gave an account of the replies so far received by the Secretariat from the various Governments to which the scheme dealing with scientific property had been sent.

Eleven countries had replied. Some of the replies had been favourable, while others contained reservations. On the whole, however, they represented a success for the Committee ; there were no negative replies, and even those which contained reservations admitted the necessity of doing something to enable scientists to profit by their discoveries. It was unfortunate that replies had not yet been received from several important Governments, notably France and the United States. In the case of Italy, the reply of the Accademia dei Lincei might be regarded as the official answer.

M. Ruffini then analysed the replies received. These were almost unanimous on one point, namely, that in the case of scientific property, as in that of artistic and industrial property, the proper method was to proceed from national action to the International Convention.

M. DE REYNOLD stated the views of the Intellectual Co-operation Committee of the Catholic Union for International Studies on the Ruffini Scheme.

M. LUCHAIRE then informed the Sub-Committee that he had received a semi-official reply from the French Government, which was on the whole in favour of the Ruffini scheme.

M. RÖTHLISBERGER said it was clear from the conclusions of the various replies that Senator Ruffini was in the right, and that the question of scientific inventions and discoveries should be treated separately, and not as one with the question of literary and industrial property. The Committee's work was accordingly justified.

They had thus been brought to consider the preparation of a third convention, which could be put into effect with much greater ease if they drew up one or more typical national laws in advance.

He stated that the International Bureau at Berne had ascertained all the objections which might be raised to the Ruffini scheme, as experience had shown that unless this precaution was taken objections were raised as soon as the conventions had been signed. One of the Sub-Committee's duties would be to reply to these objections, particularly the fundamental ones, some of which were inherent in certain systems already in operation.

When this first part of the work had been done, the Sub-Committee would have to draw up one or more typical laws, and they would find that certain countries have already gone a considerable distance towards meeting the legitimate claims of scientists.

Lastly, they would have to create a public demand, in order to stimulate Governments and to inculcate the idea that scientific inventions and discoveries ought to confer rights on the scientists.

He then made a close analysis of the scheme, and raised a certain number of objections, as he thought it was prudent to consider in advance the objections with which they would have to deal.

M. LAFONTAINE and M. DE REYNOLD then analysed the scheme and examined the criticisms which had been offered.

M. DE REYNOLD suggested that an advisory conference of experts should be held as soon as possible ; this conference would consist of a small number of representatives of the scientific world, the Governments and manufacturers.

M. KNOPH said that the Norwegian Government, which had appointed a sub-committee to study the Ruffini scheme, recommended the adoption of the scheme. Certain objections had, however, been raised.

M. DE HALECKI stated that Poland's reply was favourable.

As the outcome of these discussions, the following text was adopted by the Sub-Committee :

" The Committee has received and examined the replies of the Governments on the question of scientific property.

" Although the majority of the States most closely concerned have notified their opinions, the Committee thinks it advisable to postpone drawing any conclusion from them until more replies have been examined.

" It notes further that the large majority of the replies from Governments, and of the reasoned opinions given by competent institutions and authorities, agree upon the following points :

" 1. A new right should be created for scientists whose discoveries have been profitably applied ;

" 2. It is extremely difficult to determine the rules for the application of this right to each particular case ;

" 3. The legitimate interests of industries which depend on the application of scientists' discoveries should be taken into consideration.

" In these conditions, although it notes with gratification that great progress has been achieved along the lines which the Assembly authorised it to follow, the Committee does not feel that it is yet in a position to propose a definitive text for an international convention, but thinks it advisable to convene first a conference of experts to investigate the various objections to M. Ruffini's scheme, and if necessary to make the required modifications in it. The fact that, thanks to the initiative of the League of Nations, a new principle of considerable importance would appear to be henceforward accepted is a cogent reason for giving the various interests concerned as careful consideration as possible and framing proposals which will be likely to obtain general acceptance. The experts should be chosen in such a manner that the Governments chiefly concerned and the scientific and industrial worlds may be officially represented at the Conference.

" The Committee accordingly requests the Council :

" 1. To invite those States which have not yet expressed their opinions on the question of scientific property to forward their replies not later than January 1st, 1925 ;

" 2. To convene, for a date after January 1st, 1925, a Conference of Experts to study the various problems raised by the question of scientific property. "

It was also agreed that M. Ruffini, with the assistance of M. Röthlisberger, should prepare a supplement to his report, which would be of a purely didactic nature. Its object would be to raise every possible objection and to reply to those which had actually been put forward. It should be ready in time to be submitted to the Council at its next session.

2. *Protection of Professional Titles.*

M. DESTRÉE, Rapporteur on the enquiry into legislation on the protection of professional titles in different countries, made a verbal statement on the question. He concluded by emphasising the difficulty of proposing international legislation at the present time, owing

to the great diversity of conditions prevailing in different countries. The following resolution was adopted :

“ The Committee considers it desirable to direct the attention of the Assembly to the question of the protection of professional titles. When a nation has organised a whole course of studies for the bestowal of a professional title, such title should, both in the interest of the studies themselves and from the point of view of honest competition, be protected against usurpation, preferably by a penal clause similar to that rendering the unauthorised wearing of decorations an offence.

“ The circumstances, however, are so various that the Committee considers that any suggestion for the international regulation of this question would be premature ”.

3. The SECRETARY informed the Sub-Committee of the *results of the consultation with the Economic and Legal Sections on the question whether the usurpation of professional titles could be regarded as a form of unfair competition.*

4. Senator LAFONTAINE gave a summary of his report on the *right of international associations to their titles.* The essential idea of the report was that an international association could not claim that right unless it had corporate civil status, which could only be granted by national legislation. He added, however, that the Institute of International Law, which was studying the problem, had decided in favour of an international convention to secure the concession of a form of corporate civil status which would hold good in all countries signatory to the convention.

As the outcome of a discussion on this subject — and having regard to the Legal Section's reply to a question put by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation as to an application to the Council for the International Bureaux Section to be authorised to open a register of international associations and institutions — the text of the following resolution was approved by the Sub-Committee :

“ The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation requests the Council to authorise the International Bureaux Section of the League of Nations to open a register of international associations and institutions of a social, scientific, artistic or literary character. An association or institution will only be entered in the register provided that no other association or institution having the same title has been previously entered therein or is publicly known to possess such title.

“ Registration has only a moral value. In order to give it legal value, international corporate status should be obtained for the above-mentioned associations or institutions, either through the League of Nations or through an inter-governmental Conference ”.

L47L
1924⁺

*[Distributed to the Council, the
Members of the League and the
Delegates at the Assembly.]*

A. 31. 1924. XII.

GENEVA, August 14th, 1924.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

THIRD AND FOURTH SESSIONS

*Held at Paris from December 5th to 8th, 1923, and at Geneva
from July 25th to 29th, 1924*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

SUBMITTED TO THE COUNCIL AND THE ASSEMBLY

CONTENTS

	Page
Composition of the Committee.	4
REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE TO THE COUNCIL AND THE ASSEMBLY :	
I. New Members of the Committee : Method of Work	7
II. Enquiry into the Conditions of Intellectual Life and National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation.	7
III. Work of the Sub-Committees :	
A. Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property	8
B. Sub-Committee on Bibliography	9
C. Inter-University Sub-Committee.	11
IV. Proposals submitted to the Plenary Committee	12
Conclusion.	12

Annex I.

NEW NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION :

Belgium.	13
Brazil	13
France.	13
Italy.	13
Switzerland.	13

Annex II.

INTERNATIONAL CATHOLIC COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION	13
---	----

Annex III.

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE COMMITTEE :

A. Resolutions adopted by the Plenary Committee :

1. Collation of Information on the different Educational Systems: Note submitted by Professor Gilbert Murray (Fourth Session)	13
2. Establishment of a new Sub-Committee on Inter-University Co-operation. Proposal by Dr. Millikan (Fourth Session)	14
3. Offer by the French Government of an International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation (Fourth Session) :	
(a) Letter from the French Minister of Education	15
(b) Report of the Committee to the Council on the Question	16
4. Resolution regarding the Offer made by the Italian Red Cross for the benefit of Russian Intellectual Workers (Fourth Session)	17
5. Status of the Correspondents of the Committee (Fourth Session).	17
6. Publications of the Committee (Fourth Session).	18
7. Composition of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation (Third Session)	18
8. Bibliographical Information Offices : Proposal of the Austrian National Committee (Third Session).	18
9. Publications of Scientific Societies (Third Session)	18
10. Suggestions for the Organisation of National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation (Third Session)	18
11. Mutual Intellectual Assistance : Co-operation with National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation (Third Session).	19

	Page
B. Resolutions adopted by the Sub-Committees and approved by the Plenary Committee :	
I. Scientific Property :	
✓ 1. Question of Scientific Property : Observations of the Committee on the Replies received from Governments (Fourth Session)	19
✓ 2. Protection of Artistic and Literary Property (Third Session)	20
✓ 3. Question of the Adherence of Governments to the Conventions of Berne concerning Authors' Rights (Third Session)	20
4. Protection of Professional Titles :	
(a) Resolution adopted at the Third Session	20
(b) Resolution adopted at the Fourth Session	20
5. Register of International Associations :	
(a) Resolution adopted at the Third session	20
(b) Resolution adopted at the Fourth session	20
6. List of International Awards	21
II. Bibliography :	
✓ 1. <i>Index Bibliographicus</i> (Fourth Session)	21
2. Question of Analytical Bibliography :	
(a) Co-ordination of Analytical Bibliography for Physics and Physical Chemistry (Third Session)	21
(b) Recommendations regarding Abstracts for Physics and Physical Chemistry (Fourth Session)	21
(c) Letter to be sent to Editors of Periodicals (Fourth Session)	22
(d) Guiding Principles for the Preparation of Abstracts (Fourth Session).	22
(e) Analytical Bibliography of Physics and Physical Chemistry (Fourth Session)	23
(f) Use of Abstracts for the Preparation of Index Cards (Fourth Session)	23
(g) Bibliography of Greco-Latin Antiquity : Replies to the Questionnaire sent by the Secretariat (Fourth Session)	23
(h) Analytical Bibliography of the Social Sciences (Fourth Session)	23
✓ 3. Agreement with the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels :	
(a) Use to be made of the Work of the Institute (Third Session).	23
(b) Agreement with the Institute and Explanatory Letter (Fourth Session).	24
✓ 4. Possible Revision of the Conventions of 1886 on the International Exchange of Publications :	
(a) Resolutions adopted at the Third Session	25
(b) Resolutions of the Committee of Experts on this Question (Fourth Session)	26
✓ 5. Publication of Lists of notable Books which have appeared in various Countries of the World (Fourth Session).	28
6. Placing in Reviews of Scientific Studies which their Authors are unable to Publish	28
7. Enquiries regarding Archives : Proposals of the Institute of Historical Research of the University of London (Fourth Session)	28
✓ 8. Co-ordination of Libraries (Third Session)	28
III. Inter-University Relations :	
1. International University Information Office : Activity of the Office :	
(a) Resolutions adopted at the Third Session	29
(b) Resolutions adopted at the Fourth Session	29
(c) Conclusions of the Report of the Chairman of the Directing Board on the Office and the <i>Bulletin</i> of the Office : Relations with the <i>Index Generalis</i> and <i>Minerva</i> (Fourth Session)	30
(d) Meeting of the Directors of the Inter-University National Offices (Fourth Session)	30
(e) Representation of the Committee and of the Directing Board of the Office at the Congress of the International Students' Federation (Fourth Session)	31
2. Resolutions regarding the Proposals of the Spanish Government on the Questions of the Equivalence of Degrees and the Creation of an International University (Third Session)	31
3. The Cinematograph and Intellectual Life (Fourth Session).	32
4. <i>Numerus Clausus</i> (Third Session)	32
5. Mutual Inter-University Assistance (Third Session).	33
6. Proposals for improving the Conditions of Intellectual Life in the Countries of Central and Eastern Europe (Fourth Session)	34

COMPOSITION OF THE COMMITTEE.

Members :

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| M. H. BERGSON (<i>Chairman</i>) | Honorary Professor of Philosophy at the Collège de France ; Member of the French Academy and of the Académie des Sciences morales et politiques ; Associate of the Académie royale de Belgique ; Corresponding Fellow of the British Academy ; Foreign Hon. Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh ; Foreign Member of the " Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei ", Rome, of the Royal Danish Scientific Society, Copenhagen, and of the Institut national genevois. |
| Mr. G. A. MURRAY,
(<i>Vice-Chairman</i>) | Professor of Greek at Oxford University ; Member the Council of the British Academy ; Delegate of Great Britain to the Assembly of the League of Nations ; President of the Executive Committee of the League of Nations Union. |
| Mlle K. BONNEVIE, | Professor of Zoology at the University of Christiania ; Member of the Academy of Sciences of Christiania ; Norwegian Delegate at the Assembly of the League of Nations. |
| Sir J. C. BOSE, | Founder and Director of the Bose Research Institute, Calcutta ; Professor Emeritus of the Presidency College, Calcutta ; Fellow of the Royal Society of London ; Fellow of the Asiatic Society. |
| M. A. DE CASTRO, | Professor of Clinical Medicine and Director of the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Rio de Janeiro ; Member of the Brazilian Academy. |
| Mme CURIE-SKLODOWSKA. | Professor of Physics at the University of Paris ; Honorary Professor of the University of Warsaw ; Member of the Paris Académie de Médecine, of the Polish Academy and of the Scientific Society at Warsaw ; Foreign Member of the Amsterdam and Stockholm Academies of Sciences. |
| M. J. DESTREE, | Deputy ; Former Minister for Sciences and Arts ; Member of the Académie royale de Belgique and of the Académie belge de langue et de littérature françaises. |
| M. A. EINSTEIN, | Professor of Physics at the Universities of Berlin and Leyden ; Member of the Academy of Sciences at Berlin, Foreign Member of the Royal Society of London, and of the Academy of Sciences at Amsterdam. |
| M. H. A. LORENTZ, | Former Professor of Theoretical Physics at the University of Leyden ; Member of the Amsterdam Academy of Sciences ; Honorary Member of the Vienna Academy of Sciences ; Foreign Member of the Royal Society of London, of the " Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei ", Rome, and of the Academy of Sciences of Berlin ; Foreign Associate of the Académie des Sciences, Paris, and the National Academy of Sciences at Washington ; Secretary-General of the Netherlands Scientific Society, Haarlem. |
| M. L. LUGONES, | Former Inspector-General of Public Education ; Director of the National Library of Professors at Buenos Ayres ; Professor of Esthetics at the National University of La Plata ; Member of the National Academy of Sciences, Córdoba ; Publicist ; Editor of " La Nación ", Buenos Ayres. |
| Mr. R. A. MILLIKAN, | Director of the Norman Bridge Laboratory of Physics at the California Institute of Technology ; Foreign Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences, Washington ; Vice-President of the National Research Council ; Member of the International Research Council ; Exchange Professor to Belgium. |

M. G. DE REYNOLD,

Professor of French Literature and Sub-Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Berne ; Chairman of the Swiss Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and Vice-Chairman of the Catholic Union for International Studies.

M. F. RUFFINI,

Professor of Ecclesiastical Law at the University of Turin ; Senator ; former Minister of Public Education ; President of the Royal Academy of Turin ; Corresponding Member of the " Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei ", Rome ; President of the Italian League of Nations Union.

M. L. DE TORRES QUEVEDO.

Director of the Madrid Electro-Mechanical Laboratory ; Member of the " Junta para Ampliación de Estudios " ; Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Madrid.

At this session of the Committee Sir J. C. Bose was unable to attend, owing to unforeseen circumstances ; M. Einstein and M. Lugones were present for the first time ; M. de Torres Quevedo was replaced by M. Julio CASARES, of the Royal Academy of Spain, Chief of Section in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Madrid ; M^{re} Bonnevie was replaced by Dr. Ragnar KNOPH, Professor of Law at the University of Christiania Chairman of the University Committee on Intellectual Co operation.

Austrian Correspondent :

M. A. DOPSCH.

Professor of General History and former Rector of the University of Vienna ; Member of the Vienna Academy of Sciences.

Experts :

M. G. CASTELLA.

Professor of Swiss History and General History at the University of Friburg.

M. J. LUCHAIRE.

Honorary Professor of the University of Grenoble ; Inspector-General of Public Education in France.

M. H. REVERDIN.

Professor of Philosophy at the University of Geneva.

M. O. DE HALECKI.

Professor of Eastern European History and former Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Warsaw.

Representative of the Secretary-General of the League of Nations :

M. I. NITOBÉ

Professor of Colonial History at the University of Tokio ; Under-Secretary-General of the League of Nations, and Director of the Section of International Bureaux.

Representative of the International Labour Office :

M. W. MARTIN

Privat-Docent at the University of Geneva ; Technical Adviser to the International Labour Office.

Secretary of the Committee and Sub-Committees :

M. G. OPRESCU,

Lecturer at the University of Cluj, Rouman'ia ; Member of Section at the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

COMPOSITION OF SUB-COMMITTEES.

(1) *Bibliography :*

M. BERGSON, Chairman
M^{lle} BONNEVIE,
Mme CURIE-SKLODOWSKA,
M. DESTRÉE,
M. M. GODET,
Mr. C. T. HAGBERG WRIGHT,
Mr. J. R. SCHRAMM,

Members of the Committee.

Director of the Swiss National Library.

Director of the London Library.

Professor of Botany at the Cornell University, Ithaca ;

Member of the American National Research Council.

(2) *Inter-University Relations :*

M. BERGSON, Chairman.
M. DE CASTRO,
M. DESTRÉE,
Mr. MILLIKAN,
Mr. MURRAY,
M. DE REYNOLD.

(3) *Intellectual Property :*

M. BERGSON, Chairman.
M. DESTRÉE,
Mr. MILLIKAN,
M. DE REYNOLD.
M. RUFFINI,
M. DE TORRES QUEVEDO,
M. W. MARTIN.

Members of the Committee.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

THIRD AND FOURTH SESSIONS

Held at Paris from December 5th to 8th, 1923, and at Geneva from July 25th to 29th, 1924.

REPORT FROM THE COMMITTEE TO THE COUNCIL AND THE ASSEMBLY

I. NEW MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE : METHOD OF WORK.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation held its third session in Paris from December 5th to 8th, 1923, and its fourth session at Geneva from July 25th to 29th, 1924. Two new members — Professor A. EINSTEIN and M. L. LUGONES — took part in the proceedings of the latter session. A third new member — Sir. J. C. BOSE — was unable to attend. The report which we have the honour of submitting to the Council and the Assembly contains not so much a complete statement as a general survey of our activity and is intended to serve as an introduction to the resolutions and documents contained in the annexes.

During the period between August 2nd, 1923, and July 29th, 1924, the Committee directed its efforts to a single object — namely, the development of all branches of its activities in accordance with the programme which the Committee adopted at the outset of its work, and within the limits assigned to it, when it was set up by the Council. It has adhered to its original methods — namely, to take all possible precautions against interfering in the intellectual life of the various countries, learned societies and universities; secondly, never to adopt schemes so vast as to be impracticable; and, thirdly, to obtain information before acting. By following this method the Committee has, in the last few months, been able to enter upon a period of fruitful work.

II. ENQUIRY INTO THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL LIFE AND NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

It will be recollected that, on the first day of its first session, in August 1922, the Committee placed on its programme an enquiry into the conditions of intellectual life in the different countries. This enquiry, the object and principal methods of which were laid down in our report of August 24th, 1922, has been continued in spite of resources which, it must be admitted, were inadequate. Forty pamphlets, which differed somewhat in size and value, have been published to date; some twenty reports in manuscript have been, or will shortly be, submitted. Taken as whole, this represents a considerable body of work. We may, however, be asked what are the practical results of the enquiry.

There is, first, the work done, the large amount of information collected — information sufficiently full to allow of general conclusions. We may then point out that the enquiry has in the case of many countries been the only means of revealing the conditions and the most urgent needs of their intellectual life. The enquiry has enabled us to invite a large section of the intellectual world to co-operate in the Committee's labours, this being the best means of obtaining its support for the League of Nations and demonstrating the greatness of the League's mission and the practical utility of its work.

Even if this had been the only object of the enquiry, the League would have a very great interest in its continuance. We must not overlook the influence of thinkers, teachers and writers upon public opinion — the strongest support of the League of Nations.

The main consequence of the enquiry has been the almost spontaneous organisation of mutual assistance between intellectual workers. We are here alluding to the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation. The latter were first formed in the new countries of Central and Eastern Europe — that is to say, countries which are suffering from all kinds of economic and political difficulties consequent upon the war — for the specific purpose of the enquiry and as a channel for information as to the conditions and most imperative needs of their intellectual life. The International Committee recognised the advantage of extending

this system not only to countries where intellectual life is threatened but also to those where intellectual conditions are more or less normal. At the instance of the Committee, or rather on the initiative of some of its members, national committees were organised in Belgium, Brazil, Switzerland and France and are being organised in Great Britain, Italy and elsewhere. In this manner, exchanges of all kinds will be possible between nations. The prospects for the future are almost unlimited.

One of the Committee's first endeavours was therefore to establish contact with the National Committees. For this purpose it called their representatives to Paris for a meeting held from December 5th to 7th, 1923, when delegates from the Austrian, Bulgarian, Finnish, Greek, Hungarian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Polish, Roumanian, Serb-Croat-Slovene, and Czechoslovak Committees, and also a delegate from the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for Russian Emigrants, discussed for three days with the International Committee all the problems of an intellectual nature of particular interest to their countries — the Office of Bibliographical Information, exchange of publications, exchanges of students, young university men and professors, etc. The minutes of this third session contain certain very interesting proposals, which the Committee did not fail to investigate. It was a happy experiment which should be repeated as often as possible. Meanwhile, we are attempting to collaborate as fully as we can with the National Committees, and we hope that the latter, for their part, will endeavour to enter into direct contact with one another and that their numbers will multiply during the coming months¹.

In this connection we may here point out that in addition to the National Committees, the International Committee has decided to appoint certain corresponding members. The latter will be chosen preferably in countries where there is no National Committee as yet. This constitutes another means of establishing contact with all civilisations, even the most remote, of the contemporary world.

Attention must be drawn to another result of the enquiry into the conditions of intellectual life in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

In his general report on the countries where intellectual life is in varying degrees still difficult and often seriously threatened, Professor de Halecki put forward a certain number of concrete proposals which were adopted by the Committee. His proposals show that, although they do not ask for direct pecuniary assistance, the countries in question expect that they will be given facilities for intellectual work in the shape of exchanges, travelling facilities and, possibly, again, an international loan and credit fund or an international scholarship fund. All these proposals must now be investigated.

The foregoing facts demonstrate the value of the enquiry. The Committee, however, thought it necessary, on the basis of the experience it had obtained and of the investigators' report, to define the enquiry and to limit its scope; it also thought it advisable to concentrate its own activities and consequently decided to restrict the enquiry as far as possible to general questions and matters of international interest, and subsequently to publish the results in the *Bulletin* of its small University Office.

This decision, which was dictated by circumstances, is, of course, purely provisional; in one way or another the Committee needs to be continuously informed of the conditions of intellectual life and the position of intellectual workers. It hopes that it will one day be able to resume this enquiry — which it does not intend, however, to interrupt — with suitable resources.

III. WORK OF THE SUB-COMMITTEES.

The three Sub-Committees — on Intellectual Property, Bibliography and University Relations — have continued their work both methodically and energetically. In doing so they felt that they had at last quitted the realm of theory for that of concrete reality. The following are the results which they have achieved at present.

A. SUB-COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY.

The Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property met twice during the period under review — first in Paris on November 28th and 29th, 1923, and later at Geneva on July 31st, 1924.

Senator Ruffini's scheme is admittedly the most important result obtained by the Sub-Committee or, indeed, by the Committee itself, in the diversified and perplexing field of intellectual property.

The idea, as is generally known, is a noble one and aims at repairing a very serious injustice — the protection not merely of artistic and literary property or of technical inventions but of scientific discoveries. The failure hitherto to protect such discoveries is, there can be no doubt, one of the causes of the grave crisis through which pure science is at present passing, and which appears in the decline in the number of scientific workers. Young men, whose first preoccupation must be to gain a livelihood, hold laboratories in abhorrence, simply because they can no longer live on the earnings of pure science.

The now celebrated report of Senator Ruffini, which first defined the term "scientific discoveries" and then determined the methods to be adopted for their protection, concluded

¹ The idea of intellectual co-operation is developing among the most diverse circles. For instance, a Catholic Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which is itself an organ of the Catholic Union of International Studies, has just been founded.

in favour of a special union which would be established side by side with the two existing unions — for the protection of literary and artistic property and for the protection of industrial property. At the end of his report M. Ruffini drew up a draft international convention to be concluded under the auspices of the League of Nations. The League, in its turn, consulted the Governments. Replies have not yet been received from all of them, but those which have answered, either directly or indirectly, through an academy or committee of specialists, have given proof of keen interest in the idea underlying M. Ruffini's scheme. This is shown, for example, in the replies from the British and Netherlands Governments and by the long discussions held in the Accademia dei Lincei and the Institut de France, not to mention the numerous publications occasioned by the scheme.

We shall not therefore be rash in stating that the idea of scientific protection is now accepted and that it will be realised in one form or another. In these circumstances, and with a view to taking into consideration all the various objections and reservations which have been put forward, not against the idea itself, which is no longer contested, but as regards the most practical manner of putting it into effect, the Sub-Committee and the Committee propose to call a small conference of experts as soon as possible. The experts are to represent the principal interests involved, namely, those of the States, of scientists and, finally, of the industrial world, which must be consulted.

It would, however, appear that the present situation is not yet very favourable for the preparation of an international convention. It would probably be best to advance by stages and in any case to examine very closely another solution, with certain variations, submitted simultaneously by M. de Torres Quevedo, the Berne Bureau and the Catholic Union of International Studies. The scheme is to organise scientific protection, nationally at first, by founding, for example, trade funds for making awards with subscriptions from manufacturers and traders exploiting a given discovery. In one way or another, Senator Ruffini's idea will nevertheless shortly be realised. We need not point out how important it is for the entire League that the investigation which the Sub-Committee is now about to undertake should achieve practical results.

The Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property has other schemes under consideration. M. Destrée will later submit a report on the protection of artistic property. The Sub-Committee is, however, already examining the question of the protection of professional titles and the protection which should be granted to international associations and institutions of a social, scientific, artistic and literary character. A proposal has been made that a register should be opened at the League itself, in which the associations could be inscribed; we need not say that this investigation would only have a purely moral value until the time arrives for examining the question of giving it legal value.

B. SUB-COMMITTEE ON BIBLIOGRAPHY.

The Sub-Committee on Bibliography held three meetings — the first in Paris on November 30th and December 1st, 1923, the second at Brussels on May 1st, 2nd and 3rd, 1924, and the last at Geneva on July 23rd and 24th. It also has achieved certain important concrete results.

The first is the *Index Bibliographicus*. As is known, the world of learning is still without one of its essential instruments — namely, a bibliographical year-book containing a list of all publications on periodical bibliography and of all bibliographical institutions. There can be no difficulty in realising the great advance a volume of this nature would render possible as regards scientific documentation. Thanks more particularly to M. Marcel Godet, Director of the Swiss National Library at Berne, the *Index* is almost finished. It will appear towards the end of the year and may be expected to render very great services.

The second problem which has from the outset occupied both the Plenary Committee and the Bibliography Sub-Committee is the prompt and regular exchange of scientific information in the shape of summary analyses — analytical bibliography or a system of *abstracts*. Its object being to proceed here again by stages, the Sub-Committee singled out three sciences — physics and physical chemistry, the social sciences and Greco-Latin antiquity. It first considered the case of physics and physical chemistry. It invited to Brussels the following experts: Mr. Cooper, Mr. Fulcher, M. Langevin, M. Marie, M. Cotton, M. Jean Gérard, M. Thirring and M. Debye, who are all universally recognised authorities on these questions. After very interesting discussions, the Sub-Committee concluded by determining the methods by which it would be possible, in the field of physics and physical chemistry, to accelerate and systematise analytical bibliography, avoiding duplication and making the summaries more methodical. A committee of specialists was appointed, consisting of Mme. Curie and M. Lorentz, representing the Sub-Committee, and Mr. Cooper, M. Langevin and M. Scheel, representing the three principal bibliographical periodicals on physics existing at present: namely, *Science Abstracts*, the *Journal de Physique* and the *Physikalische Berichte*. These three important publications were to come to an agreement with one another and with the Sub-Committee upon a common system of analytical bibliography. The value of this agreement in the field of physics and physical chemistry will be apparent when it is remembered that progress in any science largely depends upon the promptness with which information can be obtained and the method by which it is communicated.

The Sub-Committee has already made the preliminary overtures for an agreement of this nature in the field of Greco-Latin antiquity and the social sciences. The latter, however, being an immense and ill-defined realm, the Sub-Committee will deal at first only with the economic sciences.

Side by side with analytical bibliography is the question of a *titles bibliography*. While much easier to compile than the former, the latter lies at the basis of all documentation and may even suffice, if necessary, for certain special branches of learning, such as history. A scheme might have been devised for a universal bibliographical list. The Committee, however, does not at present contemplate so ambitious an undertaking. Its proposal is that the League should ratify a draft contract with the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels.

The League is not asked to grant its patronage completely and without qualification to the International Institute of Bibliography, but merely to a clearly defined branch of bibliography. A collective catalogue of the great libraries, a bibliography of bibliography, the centralisation of documents relating to bibliographical institutes and societies, publication by the Brussels Institute of the *Index Bibliographicus* and of a periodical bulletin, which would serve as the organ of the Committee for questions of bibliography — such would henceforward be the Institute's programme of work. It will be seen that the Committee has endeavoured, first, to assist an undertaking which is considered by some to be too large but which is none the less the only international organisation of the kind existing to-day, and, secondly, to enable it to direct its efforts more particularly to matters in which it can scientifically render the greatest possible services.

The Brussels Institute and the Committee reached an agreement. All that remains for the League of Nations to do is to ratify the draft Convention. In Article 6, mention is made of an annual subsidy, the amount of which would be fixed each year by the League of Nations on the report of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. Naturally, the grant would be very small, its main value being moral rather than material; it would be tangible evidence of the patronage bestowed by the League of Nations on the Brussels Institute, while at the same time it would entitle the League to representation on the Governing Body of the Institute. The rejection of this article again would in no way entail the rejection of the Convention as a whole.

Should the League of Nations desire to make a grant, it would be free to allocate it definitely to any one of the tasks undertaken by the International Institute.

At its first session, the Plenary Committee drew the attention of the Council and the Assembly to the two International Conventions concluded at Brussels on March 15th, 1886, regarding the international exchange of official, scientific and literary publications. It noted, in the first place, that these Conventions had not received the adhesion of certain States and, secondly, that they no longer satisfied existing requirements. The exchanges in question, however, are among the most effective means of intellectual co-operation, and they will be of still greater value should it prove possible to extend them to cover scientific publications. The Committee accordingly held that, while they would call upon non-signatory States to accede to the Conventions, the time was ripe for summoning a new conference to undertake the revision of the two conventions. The Council and the Assembly accepted these views. It was also felt that, for the moment, it would be enough to convene not a conference strictly so called but only a committee of experts. The latter accordingly met at Geneva between July 17th and 19th, 1924. It submitted to the Sub-Committee a series of five resolutions, reproduced in the annexes, which were laid by the Sub-Committee before the full Committee.

The Committee of Experts sought to devise a method of enabling States which have so far not signed the 1886 Conventions to give their adhesion to them. With that object in view, it has limited the scope of the obligation which makes the exchange of all official publications compulsory. To obviate revision of the Brussels Conventions, an additional protocol would be opened for the purpose, and this protocol could be signed by States which have so far withheld their adhesion.

A new draft Convention on the Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications has been drawn up, recommending the compulsory exchange of all current lists of national bibliography as and when they appear. The Committee of Experts also considered the question of creating a collection, or of compiling a list, of the works which the various States have at their disposal for the purpose of their international exchanges. The Committee of Experts finally invites countries to publish an annual report on the work of their exchange services; these reports would be transmitted to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which would publish extracts from them and make use of them in framing a general report. As the question of free postage is of extreme importance in this connection, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would obtain information from the bureau of the Universal Postal Union upon the best method of securing this privilege.

Bibliography, however, should not be designed merely to serve the needs of scholars and specialists: it ought to promote the diffusion of general culture. For this reason the Sub-Committee — and subsequently the full Committee — endorsed a proposal by Dr. Hagberg Wright. His suggestion was that a list of the most notable and valuable works appearing each year in every country in all branches of science, literature and art should be issued for the benefit of the larger public. These lists would be very short, and the information they contain would be supplied to the Committee by the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation by the most highly-qualified learned bodies or intellectual associations and, finally, by specialists with the highest qualifications. A beginning is being made with the carrying-out of this scheme. The importance of this idea from the social point of view must be obvious.

Lastly, the Bibliographical Sub-Committee has endeavoured to find the solution of another problem — the best method of enabling scholars who have not the necessary resources or who write in one of the less-known languages to publish works which, though in many

cases valuable, are liable to be overlooked to a great extent. The proposal made by Professor Struve, Chairman of the Intellectual Co-operation Committee for Russian Emigrants, is that facilities should be given for the publication in scientific reviews or collections of the results of investigations which the authors are not in a position to publish. Naturally, special attention would be given to works prepared in countries in which the effect of the war has been to hamper or entirely to arrest scientific publication. This scheme is still under consideration.

In conformity with a request made by the London Institute of Historical Research, the Sub-Committee decided to send questionnaires to the various countries for the purpose of collecting information upon archives ; this information will then be published in the *Bulletin* of the London Institute.

C. UNIVERSITY SUB-COMMITTEE.

The University Sub-Committee, like the Bibliography Committee, met on three occasions — in Paris on December 3rd and 4th, 1923 ; at Brussels on April 29th and 30th, 1924 ; and at Geneva on July 22nd, 1924.

This Sub-Committee, too, is able to point to tangible results, the principal being the establishment of the *International University Information Office*.

The annexes contain the conclusions of the report by the Chairman of the Directing Board on the activities of this Office, which have, nevertheless, been greatly circumscribed by the fact that it commands very limited resources. The Office, however, is at last in being. Although it is identical with the secretariat of the Committee, the Office, nevertheless, shows that the Committee's work in connection with the universities meets a long-felt need. The Office publishes a quarterly bulletin which, in view of the wealth of available material, will in the near future, be published every two months. The *Bulletin*, of which three numbers, in the shape of two brochures, have so far been published, will in future contain, as a provisional arrangement, the main results of the enquiry into the conditions of intellectual life ; its importance will consequently be greatly enhanced. As it is at present designed, the *Bulletin* is the only organ which can to-day give information upon university life from every point of view and in all countries. No other publication, therefore, covers the same ground.

The activity of the Office, however, has not been confined to the *Bulletin* alone. The Office is directly and permanently in touch with many universities of the world, both official and autonomous, and above all with national university information offices and similar institutions. One of the main duties incumbent upon it is to establish relations between these offices and to endeavour to found new offices in countries in which they do not at present exist. The annexes contain a proposal for a meeting between the Directing Board of the Office and the representatives of national offices or similar institutions. The Office is also in touch with the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation, of which the *Bulletin* is to some extent the official organ. It has further established relations with the publishers of the two great international university year-books — the *Index Generalis* and *Minerva*.

An agreement to promote the interchange of information has actually been concluded with M. Montessus de Ballore, the publisher of the former work, and it is hoped that an agreement on the same lines will be reached with the publishers of the latter. Finally, the Office maintains contact with the International Students' Associations, to which it devotes considerable space in its *Bulletin*. It will thus be seen that the Office has really become the Committee's executive organ for all matters relating to inter-university relations.

At its meetings at Brussels on April 29th and 30th the University Sub-Committee gave the most careful consideration to the Spanish Government's proposals which were put forward by M. Castillejo. One of these proposals related to the foundation of an international university. The Sub-Committee rejected this proposal, as it would encounter insuperable difficulties and, moreover, would not fulfil any vital need. Other proposals had already been considered by the Committee and the Sub-Committee, which confined themselves to transmitting to the Spanish Government the text of the resolutions which they had previously adopted. They agreed, however, with the Spanish Government in recommending that States and universities should as far as possible, and while retaining their autonomy unimpaired, accord the same recognition whenever circumstances permit to courses given by foreign professors as to courses given by national professors ; in recommending, further, the foundation of international scientific institutes, and in emphasising the importance of courses designed to enable contemporary nations to understand one another better. Finally, they unanimously approved the spirit of universality underlying these proposals and congratulated the Spanish Government on the excellent effect produced by its generous action on behalf of a healthy internationalism in university relations.

The University Sub-Committee also dealt with a problem which at first sight would appear to be of only indirect interest to it but the importance of which is obvious — namely, the cinematograph and intellectual life. In doing so it was actuated by considerations of a social nature. The cinematograph cannot be overlooked by those who are concerned with questions of education, morality and the higher learning ; it must be employed and it must be improved. It can be, and is already, an indispensable instrument in science and in university teaching. For some months past the Swiss Students' Federation, which is affiliated to the great international federation, has given its attention to the creation of an international scientific films service. For this purpose it applied to our Office, and the Sub-Committee adopted at Paris, and subsequently at Brussels, a recommendation expressing a desire for

the success of this undertaking. Again, M. Luchaire, member of the Directing Board of the Office, prepared a report on the cinematograph and intellectual life, the conclusions of which were adopted and will be found in the annexes. We desire to draw attention to the first of these conclusions — namely, the collaboration between the Office and the Swiss Students' Federation, with a view to compiling an international catalogue of scientific films.

IV. PROPOSALS SUBMITTED TO THE PLENARY COMMITTEE.

As will appear from what has been said, the method hitherto followed by the Committee has invariably consisted in calling upon the Sub-Committees to consider the proposals submitted to it. The Sub-Committees in their turn have in each case had recourse to experts.

Three proposals, however, were presented direct to the Committee during the fourth plenary session.

Professor Gilbert Murray, Vice-Chairman of the Committee, submitted a suggestion for an enquiry into national systems of education. He had in view concise statements indicating in the case of each country the main lines and the principal characteristics of their educational system. In this way it would be possible to remove the difficulties which are experienced in obtaining absolutely accurate details regarding all the various systems. These statements, issued in book form, would constitute a collection similar in its own category to the *Index Bibliographicus* for documentation, and the *Index Generalis* and *Minerva* for the universities. The Committee at once adopted this proposal, the value of which is obvious.

Dr. Millikan proposed to appoint from among the members of the Committee a special select committee for inter-university co-operation with a view to systematising and encouraging exchanges of professors and advanced students. This Committee would exert a certain moral influence but would be of a purely advisory character. Dr. Millikan's proposal was adopted.

On July 24th, M. François Albert, French Minister of Education and Fine Arts, forwarded a letter to M. Bergson, Chairman of the Committee, intimating that the French Government had, in response to the appeal recently made by the Committee on behalf of intellectual co-operation, decided to offer to the League of Nations an Institute of International Intellectual Co-operation. The French Government accordingly expressed its willingness to supply the Committee with the money and premises it requires, and in this way to provide it with the means of investigation and action which are at present denied it.

The Committee replied to the French Government's letter in a telegram congratulating it on this act of international solidarity and noble instance of disinterestedness, which was in every way consonant with the spirit of universality and the great intellectual traditions of France. In addition, and without any desire to prejudge any solution which might be reached, the Committee prepared a brief report to the Council on the French Government's proposal and on the manner in which such an institution might perform its work. The Committee hopes in this way to assist the Council and the Assembly in considering the question when the French Government's proposal is officially brought forward by the French delegation.

Whatever the outcome, the scheme shows the progress which has been made in the world by the idea represented by the Committee and the imperative needs to which it corresponds.

Finally, we must mention that the Italian Red Cross has, through the intermediary of its President, M. Ciraolo, placed at our disposal the sum of 100,000 lire for distribution to specially deserving Russian scholars, whether resident in Russia or outside Russia, irrespective of their political opinions.

The Committee has felt itself particularly honoured by the confidence reposed in it, of which this generous action on the part of the Italian Red Cross is a manifestation. It has instructed the Directing Board of its University Office to prepare a list of Russian scholars needing help, and, with this end in view, to undertake as rapidly as possible an enquiry, in which Professor Einstein has signified his willingness to take part.

CONCLUSIONS.

In summing up the work of the Committee during the present period we observe once more that it has passed beyond the stage of academic investigation and uncertainty and has now definitely entered on that of practical achievement — an achievement which would be still more substantial and valuable if the Committee possessed larger funds. This conclusion, which is perhaps a melancholy one, has been forcibly brought home to the Committee for some months past at each new forward movement; the Committee, however, is acquiring an ever-deeper conviction that its work corresponds to certain very urgent needs and imperative necessities and that its mere existence has awakened high hopes — not high hopes only, but also generous and active sympathy for the League of Nations in circles which have hitherto been if not at times hostile to it perhaps at least sceptical and indifferent. The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which now rightly understands its mission, which has created between its members, whatever their differences of origin or mind, a genuine feeling of intellectual solidarity, and which is fully conscious of the magnitude of the task that the League of Nations has entrusted to its care, firmly believes that a day will come when it may proceed without check or interruption to the fulfilment of its various aims.

G. de REYNOLD,
Rapporteur.

Annex I.

NEW NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

I. BELGIUM.

The Belgian National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation is composed of the following persons :

M. E. BACHA, Director of the Belgian Services of Bibliography and International Exchanges; M. A. DAXHELET, Director-General of the Ministry of Science and Arts; M. FRANCOU, Minister of State; M. P. HYMANS, Deputy, Minister of State, Minister for Foreign Affairs; Mgr. LADEUZE, Rector magnificus of the University of Louvain; M. LAFONTAINE, Senator; M. MAHAIM, former Minister of Industry and Labour, Director of the Solvay Institute; M. H. PIRENNE, Professor of the University of Ghent, former Chairman of the International Union of Academies; M. P. POULLET, former Minister of Science and Arts; M. VERMEYLEN, Senator, Professor of the University of Ghent; M. M. WILMOTTE, Professor of the University of Liège; Dom Ursmer BERLIERE, of the Abbey of Maredsous, Chairman of the Royal History Commission, member of the Académie royale; M. R. P. DELAHAYE, Chairman of the Bollandist Society at Brussels.

Chairman : M. Jules DESTREE, Deputy, former Minister of Science and Arts, member of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Secretary : M. R. DUPIERREUX, Advocate at the Court of Appeal, Professor of the Institut supérieur des Beaux-Arts at Antwerp.

2. BRAZIL.

The Brazilian National Committee was formed at the beginning of 1924. It is composed of the following : M. de Affonso CELSO, M. Afranio PEIXOTO, M. de CASTRO, M. Medeiros e ALBUQUERQUE, M. Michel COUTO, M. Paul de FRONTIN, M. Rodrigue Octavio and M. Henrique MORIZE.

3. FRANCE.

The French National Committee has recently been set up under the chairmanship of M. Henri de JOUVENEL, former Minister of Education.

4. ITALY.

The Italian Government has recently informed the Secretariat that it will give its support to the Italian National Committee.

5. SWITZERLAND.

The Swiss National Committee has been formed under the provisional chairmanship of M. de REYNOLD, member of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. Professor FISHER is the Vice-Chairman, and M. GODET, Director of the National Library at Berne, is the Secretary.

Annex II.

INTERNATIONAL CATHOLIC COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

Chairman : M. H. de VRIES, Professor of the Catholic University of Nimègue Steneschans, Nimègue (Netherlands); Secretary : M. l'Abbé COMTE, Rector of Confignon, Canton of Geneva (Switzerland). Certain persons are *ex officio* members of the Committee, among whom are M. de MONTENACH, Chairman of the Catholic Union of International Studies; M. G. de REYNOLD, Vice-Chairman of the Union.

Annex III.

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE COMMITTEE

A. RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE PLENARY COMMITTEE

I.

1. COLLATION OF INFORMATION ON THE DIFFERENT EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS.

Note submitted by Professor Gilbert Murray.

It is suggested that the States Members of the League shall be invited to prepare, for the information of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and for subsequent publication as a League document, a concise account of the main features of their respective educational

systems. Experience has shown the difficulty of obtaining, without a disproportionate amount of labour, accurate details of foreign educational systems, and it is submitted that a document of this kind comprised within the limits of a single volume would constitute an exceedingly valuable work of reference. Governments might at the same time be asked to supplement their original reports by annual resumé of their main educational developments during the past year, and these resumé would be published as an annual supplement to the main volume. There would then be available at any given moment a concise and up-to-date collection of educational information which would afford not only a basis of comparison between the educational systems of different countries but also in the case of any particular country — a foundation upon which the student might build up a more detailed knowledge of any special aspect of education in which he might happen to be interested. National educational systems differ to such an extent that it is probably impossible to lay down any common plan for these suggested reports, and it will no doubt be found more convenient to give the national education departments an entirely free hand in their preparation. It is, however, suggested that information on the following points should in all cases be given :

- (a) The name of the department of State responsible for public education.
- (b) The main types of education provided — e.g., elementary, secondary, technical, university and continuation or adult, with statistics of the numbers of teachers and students engaged in each.
- (c) The extent to which education of various types is controlled :
 - (i) by the central authority ;
 - (ii) by local authorities constituted as public bodies — e.g., city councils, provincial committees, etc. ;
 - (iii) by other bodies — e.g., school foundations and university corporations.
- (d) The extent to which education of various types is financed :
 - (i) by the central authority ;
 - (ii) by the local authority ;
 - (iii) from private sources, such as trust funds.

Information as to the authority responsible for the provision of school buildings and the source from which such provision is met might usefully be incorporated in this section :

- (e) The extent to which education is compulsory.
- (f) The extent to which education is free to all classes.
- (g) The extent to which the State controls the qualifications of teachers of various types and whether teachers are appointed directly by the State or by other bodies.
- (h) A brief account of the national provision of scholarships, with special reference to :
 - (i) scholarships tenable abroad ;
 - (ii) scholarships tenable by foreigners.

2. ESTABLISHMENT OF A NEW SUB-COMMITTEE ON INTER-UNIVERSITY CO-OPERATION.

It is proposed to create a new Sub-Committee on Inter-University Co-operation which would take over a small part of the very large field of activity of the Committee on Inter-University Co-operation. The new Sub-Committee is to be called "Sub-Committee upon the Exchange of Professors and Advanced Students between different Countries". This Sub-Committee is to be a small one, the functions of which are to be :

1. To inform itself fully regarding the score or more of agencies which are already operating in this field or which may in the future be created.
2. To furnish information and advice to any agencies which may wish to make use of its services.
3. To take full responsibility for the giving out of information for the League of Nations to the public through the *Bulletin* or otherwise as to the conditions of operation of any of these agencies.
4. To devise new plans, if it so desires, for facilitating and extending the type of interchange with which it deals.

Since the influence of the Sub-Committee would be largely advisory and moral, it is proposed that, for the sake of efficiency, its members do not exceed five and that its constitution be as follows :

M. H. A. LORENTZ, Chairman ;
 M. Henri BERGSON, Chairman, Committee on Intellectual Co-operation ;
 Professor Gilbert MURRAY, Vice-Chairman, Committee on Intellectual Co-operation ;
 M. M. NITOBÉ, Under-Secretary-General, League of Nations ;
 M. Vernon KELLOGG, Permanent Secretary, National Research Council, U.S.A.

3. OFFER BY THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT OF AN INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

(a) *Letter from the Minister of Education :*

Paris, July 24th, 1924.

The appeal which you have lately made in the name of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and in which you request the assistance of all nations in the work undertaken by the Committee, has been, I hope, favourably received. If it be true that co-operation, organised on generous lines between nations for the benefit of the progress of knowledge and intellectual aims, necessarily implies a closer union of the mind, and that that closer union is the first condition of peace and concord between men, then the success of this work is of interest not only to the scientific world and to the world of letters and arts but also to all mankind.

The work of your Committee has been followed in France with warm sympathy. Both my predecessors and myself in the Ministry of Education would have thought ourselves failing in our duty if we had not paid most careful attention to your Committee's work.

An examination of the Minutes and resolutions of your Committee has enabled me clearly to understand the imperative reasons which underlie your appeal. The members of the Committee, as well as yourself, have examined for more than two years the organisation in all its aspects, of intellectual work in the world. You have noted all the points, and they are numerous, in regard to which a better organisation of this work by means of a better understanding between the nations would make this work far easier to establish and far more fruitful in effect. You have formulated the most detailed and most encouraging suggestions regarding the establishment of international co-operation in all the various branches of knowledge.

Your Committee has, however, been compelled to confine itself to suggestions, since it has no means at its disposal to carry out to the end the investigation of each scheme and give it practical realisation. To-day, if I may be allowed to say so, your Committee is in the position of an inventor who has completed the plans of an admirable machine which will prove of the greatest benefit to humanity, but who has neither the money nor the necessary equipment to make that invention a practical reality.

In the name of the French Government, and in the conviction that I am the interpreter on this point of the whole of French public opinion, I desire to offer to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations the practical means for transforming its plans into a beautiful and concrete reality. The League of Nations has undertaken, for the relief of humanity, a series of schemes each one of which has been designed to meet one of the essential needs of the world of to-day. I believe I am right in thinking that, for all practical purposes, these schemes are all in a similar position. No resources are available for any of them which are proportionate to the extent of the miseries which these schemes are designed to cure or the benefits which they are intended to produce. A vast field is therefore opened to the generosity of States, institutions or individuals. France is not ignorant of any of the sufferings or imperfections which stand in the way of progress. It is an old tradition, however, that France is particularly sensitive to the ills which beset intellectual work. It can therefore be understood that France would take the first step towards a practical solution of these problems and would show herself ready to lay the foundations of a new international edifice upon the ground prepared by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations.

In 1905 the Italian Government, for which the problems of the development of agricultural production present vital interest, made an offer to the nations to establish at Rome an International Institute of Agriculture, which has since carried on its duties under the control of the delegates of the various nations.

The French Government to-day makes an offer to the nations to establish at Paris an International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation.

This offer, which is similar to that of the Italian Government, is the more easily made because, since 1905, a new factor of great significance, which encourages and facilitates the conception of all great international undertakings, has arisen. I refer to the existence of the League of Nations. It is through the intermediary of the League that the French Government will offer the necessary money and accommodation for the foundation and proper working of the future International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. The French Government will be happy to prove in a practical and definite manner its profound attachment to the principles for which the League of Nations stands and its ardent wish to contribute with it and through it to the peace of the world.

I therefore ask you to lay before the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation this proposal of the French Government, which I feel sure will meet with the approval of the French Parliament.

Further, I ask you, as French member of the Committee, to draw up and submit to it the plan of organisation of the future institution. This plan must correspond with the essential needs of the cause which your Committee upholds and of which all the details are known to it. In my view, the future institution should be the executive instrument of your Committee. Just as it will be for your Committee to direct this institution, it rests now with your Committee to draw up its plan of work. It will be in accordance with the suggestions which the Committee will make that I shall formulate the proposals which the representatives of France will make, at some future date, to the Council of the League of Nations.

(Signed) F. ALBERT.

(b) *Report from the Committee to the Council on the Question.*

July 29th, 1924,

If the Council of the League of Nations decides to accept the generous and disinterested offer of the French Government, the Committee feels that it may at this stage assist the Council by indicating very briefly the lines on which an institution such as that suggested by the French Government might carry on its duties.

The Committee considers that, after studying and discussing for more than two years the main questions connected with the organisation of international intellectual co-operation, it has reached a point at which further progress will be difficult unless it has at its disposal far more extensive means than those which it at present possesses. Last year, the Council and the Assembly, in authorising the creation of an International University Information Office attached to the secretariat, recognised the fact that the Committee, which constitutes the brain of this organisation, must possess the necessary means of putting its ideas into practice. But the very limited resources which the Council has been able to grant the Committee for this purpose have only made it possible to establish the embryo of a great organisation such as would befit the importance and complexity of the interests which the Committee has in its keeping.

However much the Committee may desire to pass from the period of recommendations to that of realisation, it must, first of all, point out that certain questions of principle have to be examined before it can proceed any further with its task. The Committee, which is an advisory committee of the Council of the League of Nations, has its seat, as well as its secretariat, at Geneva; there should be no question of altering these arrangements. Since its activities, in conformity with its very designation, must be world-wide, it is able to utilise for this purpose any appropriate institution, in whatever quarter of the world that institution may be established, whether the institution in question is an international institution legally established by a convention between contracting States or whether it is an institution for international studies connected with international co-operation and founded by a Government. It is not, however, for the Committee to express an opinion on the legal relations between itself and the suggested institute.

But, whatever solution may be reached, the essential point is that some organisation should be set up and that the intellectual activity of the modern world, which has been adversely affected by many evils and menaced with irreparable decay in certain countries, should finally receive through the League of Nations that assistance which it has been promised for several years but which it has never really obtained. Possibly, other Governments will also lend their material and moral support to the noble initiative taken by France.

Much remains to be accomplished, and the preliminary work, which has, of course, been partly theoretical, carried out during more than two years by the Committee, enables the latter even at this stage to define the lines on which it is working and along which it would desire to develop its activities to a far greater extent in the future.

In the first place, there is the Committee's effort to obtain information as to the state of intellectual life in various countries. This enquiry, which has been conducted up to the present with funds which have necessarily been very limited, might be continued by an Information Service. Through this service the Committee might finally complete its study of all the technical problems connected with intellectual co-operation. It might draw up periodical statistics concerning intellectual life. Possessing, as it would, a fund of general information which no private institution has the leisure to collect, it would establish a sort of connection between all branches of intellectual production. To this service it would be desirable to attach a special library of documentation concerning contemporary intellectual life.

The Committee has also set up a modest International University Information Office. In the same way, a section might be organised to serve as a connecting link between the national offices and higher educational establishments in all countries, a task which the present Office of University Relations, in view of its limited resources, has only been able to carry out in a perfunctory manner.

There might be a Section for Scientific Relations connected with the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, which might work to secure co-operation in all branches of science. This section might be in close touch with the International Institute of Bibliography and other great international bibliographical organisations.

In connection with the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property, a Legal and Economic Section might be established. This section would follow the development of all matters of an international nature connected with the material interests of intellectual workers. By timely action, wherever required, it would assist in carrying into execution the great scheme connected with scientific property and other schemes concerning artistic property. It would study the legal aspects of the problems raised by intellectual co-operation. In this sphere, the institute would naturally obtain many advantages by co-operating with the International Labour Office.

It would therefore seem to be desirable to strengthen, in collaboration with the national services of this kind which certain countries have already established, artistic and literary relations, for it is well known how slightly each country is acquainted with artistic and literary thought in other countries. The associations which group together workers of these categories are often very powerful, and it would be an excellent thing if they could be brought within the orbit of international activity. There would be considerable advantage in multiplying the number of exhibitions, translations, international congresses, etc.

A Press Service would be useful. The Press plays a very important part in international intellectual life and consequently there should be maintained between the Press and the institute a contact which would prove advantageous both to the work of the Committee and

to the Press itself. In practice, from the point of view of the propaganda needed for the success of these undertakings, the Committee requires the assistance of numerous Press organisations and especially periodicals in all countries.

The Committee does not feel that the above suggestions constitute by any means a complete list of all the branches of normal and almost daily work connected with intellectual co-operation which the institution might undertake, for this list only refers to matters which have already been met with by the Committee in the course of its work. There are other questions which an international organ could gradually take up. It is also clearly understood that the work of the Committee and the institute or the auxiliary institutions attached thereto should not in any way supersede that of existing international institutions. But the task, however, is so great that, merely in the domain of suggestion, encouragement and contact, a numerous and well-organised group of collaborators belonging to the Committee would have sufficient work for many years to come.

For the present, the Committee can do nothing more than furnish these brief indications which it is well aware are empirical, and which it has had to draw up in haste. It has always kept clear of theory in matters of organisation. Moreover, it regards the proposal of the French Government as a starting-point for future activities, the precise extent of which it is impossible at present to foresee. The Committee feels that sufficient material exists at present for the setting up of a fairly complex auxiliary institution, or, possibly, several institutions. It desires once more to emphasise the importance which it attaches to this first attempt to safeguard fully the interests entrusted to it by the League.

The above is the Committee's point of view as regards the French Government's proposal, based on such lofty ideals, for the creation of an Institute of International Intellectual Co-operation. The political and legal aspects of the question do not come within the competence of the Committee. It is for the Council and the Assembly to consider the matter and take such decisions as they may deem to be in keeping with the interests of the League of Nations. The Committee therefore has merely indicated what the main lines of the work of such an institution might be and, in so doing, it feels that it has not exceeded its powers or in any way prejudged the practical solution of the question.

4. RESOLUTION REGARDING THE OFFER MADE BY THE ITALIAN RED CROSS FOR THE BENEFIT OF RUSSIAN INTELLECTUAL WORKERS.

The Committee decides to thank Senator Ciraolo and the Italian Red Cross for this act of generosity, which is all the more touching in view of the fact that it comes from a country which has been particularly affected by the war.

With a view to ensuring the absolutely just distribution of the sum offered by the Italian Red Cross, the Committee asks the Directing Board of the International University Information Office to distribute this sum, being specially guided by the information which M. Einstein will communicate to it, after consulting M. Ehrenfels.

5. STATUS OF THE CORRESPONDENTS OF THE COMMITTEE.

On September 27th, 1923, the Fourth Assembly of the League of Nations expressed the opinion that it would be desirable to enlarge the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation so as to represent not only the various intellectual methods but also the various national cultures, and, having noted the legitimate demands expressed by the delegates of Roumania, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, and Czechoslovakia, by the Spanish-speaking delegates of America, by the Asiatic delegates and by the delegates of Ireland and of the Finno-Ugrian nations, requested the Council to consider the possibility of increasing the number of members on the Committee.

At its meeting of December 8th, 1923, after an exchange of views regarding the resolution of the Fourth Assembly, the Committee, considering the difficulties standing in the way of giving complete effect to the resolution of the Assembly, came to the conclusion that the appointment of several new correspondents representing national cultures or groups would be the best way of giving satisfaction to the legitimate wishes which had been expressed or which might be expressed in the future.

This collaboration between the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and the representatives of national cultures was partly realised by the presence of the delegates of the National Committees at the meetings of the third session of the Committee. On that occasion it was shown what valuable results such collaboration could give, both for the International Committee and for the different National Committees. Every country, however, does not yet possess a National Committee. The appointment of correspondents would be necessary not only in the countries which have National Committees but also in the other countries the national cultures of which would not otherwise be in touch with the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

The first duty of the correspondents would be to supply the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation with information on all matters concerning their country or group of countries when similarity of language and civilisation or geographical proximity renders it possible for several nations to be represented by one person.

They ought also to keep in touch with the work of the Committee and send their opinion on the questions with which it deals, support the Committee's recommendations in their country, and endeavour to secure their application, when this is not precluded by other considerations.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will appoint a correspondent each time that it considers this to be necessary.

The Committee itself determines the nature of the collaboration of its correspondents and summons them to its meetings in an advisory capacity when it considers this to be advisable. In this case travelling expenses are paid by the Committee.

6. PUBLICATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE.

The Committee thinks it advisable that the publications issued by it should be methodically distributed, and draws attention to the fact that in certain cases an agreement with a publisher who would both defray the cost and enjoy the profits of the undertaking would be preferable to an agency system. In any event, it asks that the agents for the publications issued by it should be chosen from publishing firms who have specialised in the same kind of publication and whose usual customers constitute the public which the Committee desires to reach. The Committee instructs the secretariat to transmit these observations to the competent body of the League of Nations.

7. COMPOSITION OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation makes the following recommendation regarding the first resolution adopted by the Assembly at its meeting on September 27th :

“(1) It is desirable, as is indicated in the Assembly’s resolution, that the Committee should comprise, as far as possible, representatives of the principal branches of intellectual activity and at the same time representatives not only of nationalities but of the principal groups of culture.

“(2) The system of rotation does not appear to be compatible with the method of appointment originally adopted, a method with which the Committee is entirely satisfied from the point of view of its work.

“(3) The proposal to enlarge the Committee might frequently provoke keen rivalry, and this should be avoided. The smallness of the financial resources of the Committee must also be taken into consideration. In these circumstances, the Committee is of opinion that the appointment of several new correspondents would be the best means of satisfying such legitimate desires as have or may be expressed”.

8. BIBLIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OFFICES : PROPOSAL OF THE AUSTRIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

1. Recalling its resolution adopted at the second plenary session, the Committee invites the National Committees to take the necessary measures in order that, in countries where there are no bibliographical information offices, offices of this kind should be created and attached to the big libraries. These offices would keep in close touch with each other and render all libraries more easily accessible.

2. These offices should enjoy postal franchise for their correspondence and for the despatch of books, or should at least benefit by the inland postal tariffs on books sent abroad.

3. Recalling also the necessity of creating a central office to act as an intermediary between the national offices, the Committee expresses the opinion that this task should be carried out by the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels, and recommends that this point should be included in the agreement with the Institute to be drafted by the delegates of the Committee.

9. PUBLICATIONS OF SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES.

In the interest of a more active exchange of scientific papers, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation desires to encourage a division of the publications of scientific societies and bodies into specific series corresponding with the various branches of science and arts.

10. SUGGESTIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION OF NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

1. The objects of the National Committees for Intellectual Co-operation are as follows :

(a) To serve as intermediaries between the organisations of intellectual life in their respective countries and the International Committee appointed by the Council of the League of Nations ;

(b) To collaborate in the enquiries set on foot by this Committee into the conditions of intellectual life ;

(c) To forward to the secretariat of the International Committee, or directly to the other National Committees concerned, the most urgent of the requests of the institutions and intellectual workers in their respective countries, especially requests for books and instruments, facilities for travelling and inter-university exchanges ;

(d) To satisfy as far as possible requests of the same kind which may be made to them through the intermediary of the secretariat of the International Committee or directly by the other National Committees.

2. The National Committees will themselves determine their relations with their Governments, as well as their rules of procedure and their composition. They shall constitute themselves in whatever manner they desire in accordance with local conditions and possibilities.

In countries where several organisations working in the field of intellectual co-operation exist, they are requested to unite if possible to form one committee and in any case they should reach an agreement among themselves to appoint a common delegate to represent them in their relations with the International Committee. It is desirable that each National Committee should include representatives :

- (a) Of institutions or associations established previously for the encouragement of intellectual co-operation at home or in foreign countries ;
- (b) Of organisations whose object is to present different branches of thought in their various forms (academies, learned, literary and artistic societies, etc.) ;
- (c) Of the university world, either of particular universities or of national inter-university organisations ;
- (d) Of national libraries, bibliographical institutes and offices for the exchange of publications ;
- (e) Of professional groups or national federations of intellectual workers.

3. Each National Committee shall entrust one of its members with the duty of corresponding with the secretariat of the Intellectual Committee and with other National Committees. The names and addresses of these members, all information on the composition and work of the National Committees, as well as the communications and proposals which they may desire to make, should be sent to the secretariat of the International Committee, which will publish them in the *Bulletin of the International University Information Office*.

II. MUTUAL INTELLECTUAL ASSISTANCE : CO-OPERATION WITH NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

(1) The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, after having heard the delegates of the National Committees, notes to what extent intellectual life and intellectual studies are still hampered by the economic difficulties and distress in a considerable portion of Europe. It feels it is its duty once again to draw the attention of countries where intellectual life is normal and prosperous to a situation in which the future of civilisation as a whole is directly involved. It appeals to the feelings of solidarity which should unite intellectual people throughout the world and invites them to collaborate in the work of intellectual co-operation instituted by the League of Nations.

(2) The Committee will do its utmost in proportion to its means, which at present are not upon a level with existing needs, to develop and, above all, to systematise mutual intellectual assistance on the basis of exchanges.

(3) It accordingly begs the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation in new countries, or countries whose exchanges are depreciated, to draw up a list as complete and precise as possible of the most urgent needs of their higher educational establishments, laboratories and libraries. These lists will be published in the *Bulletin* of the International University Information Office and communicated to the National Committees of the countries whose exchanges are more favourable, or to institutions which are pursuing similar objects. The plenary Committee is fully aware from previous experience that these institutions and these National Committees will do their utmost to satisfy the requests addressed to them as far as it is possible to do so.¹

B. RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE SUB-COMMITTEES AND APPROVED BY THE PLENARY COMMITTEE

I. SCIENTIFIC PROPERTY

I. THE QUESTION OF SCIENTIFIC PROPERTY : OBSERVATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE REPLIES RECEIVED FROM GOVERNMENTS.

The Committee has received and examined the replies of the Governments on the question of scientific property.

Although the majority of the States most closely concerned have notified their opinions, the Committee thinks it advisable to postpone drawing any conclusion from them until more replies have been examined.

It notes further that the large majority of the replies from Governments, and of the reasoned opinions given by competent institutions and authorities, agree upon the following points :

- 1. A new right should be created for scientists whose discoveries have been profitably applied ;
- 2. It is extremely difficult to determine the rules for the application of this right to each particular case ;
- 3. The legitimate interests of industries which depend on the application of scientists' discoveries should be consulted.

In these conditions, although it notes with gratification that great progress has been achieved along the lines which the Assembly authorised it to follow, the Committee does not feel that it is yet in a position to propose a definitive text for an international convention but thinks it advisable to convene first a conference of experts to investigate the various

¹ On the proposal of the University Sub-Committee, the Committee at its fourth session adopted a counter-proposal to the effect that such lists should no longer be published in the *Bulletin*.

objections to M. Ruffini's scheme and, if necessary, to make the required modifications in it. The fact that, thanks to the initiative of the League of Nations, a new principle of considerable importance would appear to be henceforward accepted, is a cogent reason for giving the various interests concerned as careful consideration as possible and framing proposals which will be likely to obtain general acceptance. The experts should be chosen in such a manner that the Governments chiefly concerned, and the scientific and industrial worlds, may be officially represented at the Conference.

The Committee accordingly requests the Council :

(1) To invite those States which have not yet expressed their opinions on the question of scientific property to forward replies not later than January 1st, 1925 ;

(2) To convene, for a date after January 1st, 1925, a conference of experts to study the various problems raised by the question of scientific property.

2. PROTECTION OF ARTISTIC AND LITERARY PROPERTY.

The Committee, after having noted with the greatest interest the general principles on which M. Destrée proposes to base his work, begs M. Destrée to draft a detailed scheme for the reform of the protection of artistic and literary property :

(1) The principle of the protection of the author's right properly so called, which was being more and more admitted and which had already been made the object of international conventions.

(2) The principle of the *domaine public payant*. This would enable a progressive collection to be made of the necessary resources for the encouragement of artistic and literary work by means of a special national fund.

(3) The complementary principles : (a) of the *droit de suite*, which would assure to the writer and the artist a certain portion of the profits realised from the successive sales of his work (this principle had already been introduced into French and Belgian legislation) ; and (b) the principle of the *droit au respect*, or "moral right", by which a literary or artistic work would be protected from being mutilated or spoiled.

3. QUESTION OF THE ADHERENCE OF GOVERNMENTS TO THE CONVENTIONS OF BERNE CONCERNING AUTHORS' RIGHTS.

The Committee, as an urgent and practical measure, asks the League of Nations, in conformity with the recommendation made by the Conference of Genoa in April 1922, to invite the nations which have not already done so to adhere to the Conventions of Berne concerning authors' rights.

4. PROTECTION OF PROFESSIONAL TITLES.

(a) *Resolution adopted at the Third Session.*

The Committee thinks it desirable to ensure protection for professional titles against the competition of those who lay claim to them without having pursued the studies which justify the confidence publicly placed in these titles.

In order to define the penalties which may be desirable and their international character, the Committee believes it necessary that an enquiry should be undertaken concerning the conditions necessary to ensure such protection in the various countries and in respect of the various titles.

(b) *Resolution adopted at the Fourth Session.*

The Committee considers it desirable to direct the attention of the Assembly to the question of the protection of professional titles. When a nation has organised a whole course of studies for the bestowal of a professional title, such title should, both in the interest of the studies themselves and from the point of view of honest competition, be protected against usurpation, preferably by a penal clause similar to that rendering the unauthorised wearing of decorations an offence.

The circumstances, however, are so various that the Committee considers that any suggestion for the international regulation of this question would be premature.

5. REGISTER OF INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

(a) *Resolution adopted at the Third Session.*

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation asks the Council to authorise the International Bureaux Section of the League of Nations to open a register for the inscription of international associations and institutions of a scientific and artistic and literary character. Inscription shall be authorised only if no other association or institution of the same title has been previously inscribed. The International Bureaux Section may, before authorising inscription, make enquiries in order to verify the standing of the persons who make the application. Inscription may be refused if these persons do not present the necessary qualifications, and it may be postponed until the association or the institution has given proofs of its activity and importance.

(b) *Resolution adopted at the Fourth Session.*

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation requests the Council to authorise the International Bureaux Section of the League of Nations to open a register of international

associations and institutions of a social, scientific, artistic or literary character. An association or institution will only be entered in the register provided that no other association or institution having the same title has been previously entered therein or is publicly known to possess such title.

Registration has only a moral value. In order to give it legal value, international corporate status should be obtained for the above-mentioned associations or institutions, either through the League of Nations or through an inter-governmental conference.

6. LIST OF INTERNATIONAL AWARDS.

The Committee proposes that the International University Information Office shall draw up as soon as possible a list of international awards of all kinds and of national awards accessible to foreigners at present available for scientific, artistic and literary work. This list shall be published by the Office.

II. BIBLIOGRAPHY.

I. INDEX BIBLIOGRAPHICUS.

The Committee approves the printing of the *Index Bibliographicus* within the limits of the amount provided for this purpose and decides to leave to the secretariat the task of settling the methods of carrying out the work.

2. QUESTION OF ANALYTICAL BIBLIOGRAPHY :

(a) *Co-ordination of Analytical Bibliography for Physics and Physical Chemistry and for Gréco-Latin antiquity.*

I. In conformity with the authorisation given by the Fourth Assembly of the League of Nations, the Committee decides that the technical conferences entrusted with the work of co-ordinating analytical bibliography for physics and physical chemistry shall be held on the occasion of the next session of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography.

The Sub-Committee will invite for this purpose the Union internationale de la Physique pure et appliquée, the *Journal de Physique*, the *Journal de Chimie Physique*, *Science Abstracts*, and the National Research Council of the United States each to send a representative to this session, which will be held at Brussels after Easter 1924, almost at the same time as the Conseil international de Physique (Solvay).

The Sub-Committee will also invite persons competent to inform it as to the present condition of bibliography in the German language for physics and physical chemistry.

The Union internationale de Chimie pure et appliquée will also be consulted in determining the limits of the field to be covered in respect of physical chemistry.

II. The Committee proposes that the secretariat of the Committee should conduct an enquiry into the present condition of bibliography (bibliography according to titles and analytical bibliography) for Greek and Latin studies in the various countries.

(b) *Recommendations regarding Abstracts for Physics and Physical Chemistry.*

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, after consulting several experts representing qualified associations and bibliographical organs, thinks it desirable in the interests of scientific work to recommend the following procedure :

1. That all works published by scientific journals shall be preceded by abstracts drafted as far as possible by the authors themselves in conformity with precise rules. If these rules are not followed, the abstracts will lose a great part of their value. The Committee especially recommends, after a close study of the question, the rules adopted by the *Physical Review*.

If these abstracts, for financial reasons or others, cannot be published at the same time as the articles or corresponding monographs, they should nevertheless be prepared and sent to the abstract journals in order to facilitate their work.

2. That these abstracts, destined to serve as a basis for the work of analytical bibliography, as well as to facilitate the consultation of the work or monograph of which they are an extract, should, in order to ensure that they conform to the rules adopted, be revised by the editor of the journal or by a specialist and published or communicated to the abstract journals, under the responsibility of the editor.

3. That, in the first place, periodicals which publish works concerning physics and its various immediate extensions towards the field of physical chemistry, astronomy, mineralogy, the technique of physics, etc. should be approached and their attention drawn to the interest that attaches to the application of the principles mentioned. Their observations on the subject should be obtained.

4. That, in order to ensure as complete and rapid a bibliographical documentation as possible in the field of physics, the periodicals concerned should be asked to communicate to the existing abstract journals for physics in general (*Journal de Physique* in Paris, *Physikalische Berichte* in Berlin, *Science Abstracts* in London), the summaries and the texts of all the works published by them, either in proof or in final form, without waiting for the publication of the number itself.

5. That the communication of abstracts should be made as far as possible in one of the languages in which an abstract journal for general physics exists.

6. That the abstract journals in the domain of general physics should be requested to come to some arrangement among themselves for collaboration with a view to simplifying their work and making it as complete and rapid as possible.

Each of these organs should undertake, with the least possible delay, to make abstracts of all the articles published in the periodicals with which it is concerned and to communicate these in proof form to the other interested journals.

An arrangement should be concluded between them regarding the distribution of work concerning the preparation of abstracts of periodicals published in countries not possessing an abstract journal of a general character.

Each abstract journal would take as a basis for its bibliographical publication the material sent to it either by the periodicals themselves or by the other bibliographical organs and should retain entire freedom as to the use of this material and the language in which it shall be published.

7. That an arrangement should be concluded between the publishers of the bibliographical journals in order to settle the means of achieving this collaboration either by allowing mutual freedom in regard to the reproduction or use of an article or on the basis of pre-determined subsidies.

8. In order to give the best possible scientific information, each abstract journal should publish a table of contents, drawn up in alphabetical order and based on an abstract of the contents of the monographs or extracts, in the form, for example, adopted by the *Chemical Abstracts* or the *Physical Review*.

9. The abstract journals should, in order to ensure as complete information as possible, make use of the general services of bibliography, such as the regional offices of the International Catalogue, and should obtain from these every facility for procuring the necessary information.

(c) *Letter to be sent to Editors of Periodicals.*

The attention of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations has been drawn to the great importance, from the point of view of scientific work, of providing an analytical documentation which should be drawn up as speedily, completely and accurately as possible, and to the increasing difficulties which stand in the way of such a course.

It is of opinion that it would be useful, in the first place, to make an effort to establish co-ordination in the field of physics and the immediate extensions from that field, since the work in that science has always been particularly active. With this end in view, the Committee has approved the proposals submitted to it by its Sub-Committee on Bibliography. Copies of these proposals and of information concerning detailed rules, in accordance with which the abstracts of monographs referred to in these proposals should be drawn up, are annexed to this letter.

I should be extremely grateful if you would examine these documents and forward your opinion on the matter, stating how far your journal would be disposed to help in the work which we are endeavouring to initiate. We desire, in particular, to diminish and make more efficient the work of analytical bibliography carried on in the different countries.

Should your periodical consider that it is unable to furnish the abstracts directly to the bibliographical organs, I would request you to be good enough to get into touch with one of these organs which would undertake more especially to summarise the contents of your publications.

We should be very glad if you could take part in the collective work which the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation considers essential for the development of scientific work.

(d) *Guiding Principles for the Preparation of Abstracts.*

An abstract is destined to aid the reader by furnishing him with an index and a brief outline of the contents of the article. It should therefore be suitable for reproduction in an abstract journal, so as to render unnecessary, or at any rate to facilitate, the drafting of another summary.

As an index, it should be complete; the new results, and particularly those not immediately concerned with the general subject of the article, should be given in sufficient detail to show any reader whether the article contains anything of interest to him.

Since the tables of contents of bibliographical journals, which are so valuable in finding references, are prepared entirely from abstracts, anything not contained in these abstracts will be excluded from the table of contents and, therefore, lost. The writer of abstracts therefore assumes an important responsibility towards his scientific colleagues in the event of the result of his work not being sufficiently clear and complete.

The abstracts should indicate briefly the conclusions of the article, the results obtained and numerical statistics of general importance, including everything which might be of use in drawing up a manual or table of constants.

The abstracts should give all the information which non-expert readers might desire to have regarding the article, without being obliged to refer to the article itself. Experience has shown that in general the length of the abstract ought to be between 4 and 8 per cent, of the length of the article.

The *Physical Review* affords numerous examples of the application of the preceding rules.

(e) *Analytical Bibliography of Physics and Physical Chemistry.*

Wishing to obtain the views of M. Scheel, Editor of *Physikalische Berichte*, who was unable, for private reasons, to come to Geneva, the Committee decided to ask M. Scheel to negotiate with the Practical Physics Society, and subsequently to go to Brussels with full powers to negotiate with a Commission, which might consist of Mme Curie, Mr. Cooper, M. Langevin and Professor Lorentz. This Commission will also consult the lists sent by the experts from Brussels and will select a number of periodicals to which the recommendations should be sent, its choice being limited to periodicals devoted solely to physics and cognate subjects.

It was also decided that, in the case of each periodical included in the general list, the experts should specify the headings which should be selected for the abstracts to be sent. The Commission, the appointment of which was suggested by Professor Einstein, will also formulate conclusions to be submitted to the Plenary Committee, together with the observations made at the meeting of the Sub-Committee.¹

(f) *Use of Abstracts for the Preparation of Index-Cards.*

The Committee notes that in many sciences the documentation at the disposal of the learned public is still very imperfectly organised. It hopes that the measures proposed by the Committee for the improvement of the bibliography of physical sciences will constitute a useful beginning for such an organisation, if they are fully carried out and if they are applied in other scientific fields. Nevertheless, while awaiting the results which may be expected from this beginning, the Committee would welcome with pleasure any step taken by the great scientific associations or learned bodies towards studying the practical organisation of the documentation of each branch of science, and it would gratefully receive any suggestions regarding that question.

(g) *Bibliography of Greco-Latin Antiquity : Replies to the Questionnaire sent by the Secretariat.*

The Committee decides to postpone its decision on the steps which could be taken with regard to this question until a larger number of replies has been received.

It further decides to request Professor Gilbert Murray to become a member of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, when this question is discussed.

(h) *Analytical Bibliography of the Social Sciences.*

The Committee adopted the conclusions of the Sub-Committee and decided to appoint several experts with instructions :

(a) To define the scope of a bibliography of the social sciences, or of a group of these sciences, such as, for example, the economic sciences ;

(b) To obtain information regarding the bibliographical institutions which concern themselves with the subject, as thus defined ;

(c) To report as to the best means of arriving at a working agreement to realise this bibliography in practice.

The Committee decided that the bibliography of the social sciences should deal first with political economy. It was understood that the experts should request the co-operation of the Economic Section of the Secretariat and that they would take into account the bibliography collected by the International Labour Office during its enquiry into production.

The Committee left the choice of experts to its Chairman and Vice-Chairman.

3. AGREEMENT WITH THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF BIBLIOGRAPHY AT BRUSSELS.

(a) *Use to be made of the Work of the Institute.*

With a view to carrying out the resolution of the Assembly of the League of Nations of September 27th, 1923, regarding the use to be made of the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels, the Committee, considering the necessity of creating for bibliography a permanent organ of liaison and information, and believing that it is preferable to use an existing institution rather than to create a new one at great cost, proposes to confide this work to the International Institute at Brussels, giving it the means for developing its bibliography catalogues and its collections of bibliographical works, and to use its *Bulletin* as an organ of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for bibliographical questions.

With regard to the alphabetical list mentioned in the resolution of the Committee of July 1923, the Committee thinks that for the moment it would be best to recommend the competent institutions to consent to the gratuitous despatch to the Institute of catalogues and bibliographies published under their auspices (five copies if possible).

The Committee proposes to appoint three persons to draw up a draft agreement with the International Institute, to be submitted to the Committee at its next session.

The draft shall comprise a programme of work, the subsidy to be granted, and proposals concerning the organisation of control.

¹ The full Committee at its meeting on July 29th, 1924, decided to adopt as its own any conclusions which the Commission might provisionally reach.

(b) *Agreement with the Institute, and Explanatory Letter.*

Article 1.

The League of Nations grants its patronage to the work carried on by the International Institute and referred to in Article 2 below, and will grant its assistance as far as possible with a view to facilitating the work of the Institute within these limits.

Article 2.

The International Institute undertakes to concentrate its efforts and its resources, in the first instance, to the following work :

(1) The development of an alphabetical catalogue by authors' names, on the lines of a collective catalogue of the great libraries of the world, indicating where a copy of any particular work can be found.

(2) The development of the following sections of a systematic catalogue :

(a) Bibliography and sections connected with bibliography (history and technique of books, the book trade, periodicals, libraries and archives) ;

(b) Organisation of scientific work and intellectual co-operation.

(3) Development of the collection of bibliographical works and library catalogues.

(4) Centralisation of other documents and information concerning institutions and bibliographical societies, libraries and other organs of scientific, literary and artistic information.

(5) Publication of subsequent editions of the *Index Bibliographicus*, of which the first edition is at the moment in course of preparation.

(6) Publication of a periodical *Bulletin* which would serve as the organ of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations for questions of bibliography.

(7) An office where verbal information or information by correspondence would be given ; this office to maintain relations with the national offices or special offices of scientific information.

Article 3.

The order in which the work mentioned in Article 2 shall be undertaken shall be fixed by agreement between the International Institute and the representatives of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations appointed for this purpose.

Article 4.

The International Institute will submit annually to the League of Nations a report on its work. The representatives of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation shall be at liberty, if necessary, to investigate by a personal visit the state of the work.

Article 5.

The Governing Body of the Institute shall include a member appointed by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Article 6.

An annual subsidy, of which the amount shall be fixed each year by the League of Nations on the report of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, shall be allotted to the Institute, without prejudice to any allocation which may be paid or left to the League of Nations for the development of the Institute.

The Sub-Committee decided that this draft should be sent to the Plenary Committee, together with a letter giving further information. The text of this letter was as follows :

"In execution of the proposals made by the Sub-Committee on Bibliography concerning the utilisation of the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels, and unanimously adopted by the Plenary Committee at its meeting of December 8th, 1923, the special Committee entrusted with drawing up a draft agreement to be concluded with this Institute has submitted to the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, at its meeting held on May 2nd, 1924, a text which, after discussion and amendment, has been adopted in the form of the attached draft Convention.

"The Sub-Committee fully realises that the smallness of the Committee's budget makes it difficult, at the moment, to carry out the provisions of Article 6.

"In introducing this article, the Sub-Committee desires to conform entirely with the last paragraph of the resolution adopted by the full Committee. It would, however, draw the attention of the Committee to the fact that, in its opinion, the rejection of this article would not in any way entail the non-acceptance of the whole Convention. Finally, since the League of Nations is free to fix the annual subsidy, it could, according to the amounts at the disposal of the League, be fixed at a very low figure or even suppressed in certain years.

"If such a subsidy were granted, the League of Nations would also be free to allocate it definitely to any one of the tasks undertaken by the International Institute of Bibliography, in conformity with the present Convention.

"The intention of the Sub-Committee is that the Convention which it proposes should only remain valid so long as the Institute is in possession of the funds at present at its disposal".

4. POSSIBLE REVISION OF THE CONVENTIONS OF 1886 ON THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS.

(a) *Resolutions adopted at the Third Session.*

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation notes with satisfaction that the Fourth Assembly has adopted the recommendation of the Committee regarding a conference of experts which will prepare for the revision of the International Conventions of 1886 on the Exchange of Publications.

The Committee begs the Council to authorise it to summon this conference before the next Assembly.

For this purpose, the Committee asks its secretariat to prepare a memorandum summarising the work and discussions on the exchange of publications of the Sub-Committee on Bibliography. This memorandum will be submitted to the Chairman of the Committee for his approval and communicated to the Members of the Council before its session of March next.

The Committee now lays down some instructions on which the secretariat memorandum should be based :

(a) General principles :

The Committee affirms the unquestionable advantages which would result for all the countries of the world if each possessed all the official and scientific publications of the other countries of use to them.

The Committee recognises, at the same time, certain difficulties which have been pointed out, notably that the needs of men of learning and research workers vary considerably in the various countries, and that the publications to be exchanged are sometimes far from having equivalent value.

The Committee does not ignore that the highest developed and richest countries consider it a duty to participate in every way and to their utmost in the general culture of humanity.

As, however, the importance and cost of certain official or non-official publications is so great that the obligation of remitting a large number of copies for legal deposit would be a heavy charge, the Committee approves the proposal that the States should first reciprocally communicate lists of publications for exchange, from which each State would be free to make a choice.

The Committee insists, on the other hand, that free international postage should be granted for all despatches, both for the States and for the private scientific or literary institutions.

(b) Composition and agenda of the conference :

The Committee is of the opinion that it would suffice to invite four or five experts to the conference, chosen from among the persons most competent on the subject. This conference should undertake, in agreement with the representatives of the Committee, the modifications necessary in the Conventions of 1886. Amongst others, it would examine the following points :

(1) Extension of the Conventions to countries which up to the present have not adhered.

(2) Improvement in the working of the exchange services (more frequent despatch, unification of procedure, etc.).

(3) Regular publication of lists of official publications and, if necessary, of non-official publications which would be available for international exchange.

(4) Granting of free postage.

(5) Encouragement and development of the exchange of non-official scientific and literary publications."

(c) Recommendation :

The Committee, after having noted the report of M. Bacha, thinks it desirable that the Committee of Experts convened for July next, in order to revise the Conventions of 1886, should examine, in connection with the problem of exchanges properly so called, and without losing sight of the principal object of its work, the questions relating to this problem and without which a satisfactory solution of the problem of exchanges could probably not be obtained. For example, in accordance with the suggestion of Mlle Bonnevie, it might be possible to consider, simultaneously with the question of exchanges, that of the lending of books between libraries.

(b) *Resolutions of the Committee of Experts.*

1. *Exchange of Official Publications.*

States which have not yet adhered to the Convention of 1886 and which regard the obligation contained in Article 2 as imposing too heavy a burden, whether on account of the great number of their official publications or owing to their financial situation or for any other reason, may adhere to the Convention subject to the reservation that they may, in agreement with any country, limit the number of publications sent thereto. Exchanges between such States and States which have adhered to the Convention without reservation shall be governed by the same principle.

The Belgian Government is requested to notify the text of the above resolution to the States which are parties to the Convention of March 15th, 1886. These States shall at the same time be informed that any partial adhesions which may be given in accordance with the said resolution will be notified to them by the same Government as and when they occur, such adhesions to become binding only in the relations between such of the parties as accept them and the adhering States.

Any offer of partial adhesion shall be communicated to the Belgian Government and notified by the latter to each of the States which are parties to the Convention of 1886, including those which have been permitted to adhere partially to that Treaty, each of such States being invited at the same time to inform the said Government, within a year following the notification, whether it accepts the partial adhesion so far as it concerns itself. An adhesion shall be regarded as not having been accepted by any State which has not expressed its acceptance within the said period ¹.

2. *Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications.*

The Committee of experts decides to recommend the following draft Convention to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, it being agreed that, in accordance with the procedure usually followed in the case of conventions concluded under the auspices of the League of Nations, the Legal Section of the Secretariat shall draw up the protocol clauses thereof :

DRAFT CONVENTION.

Article 1.

Independently of the obligations which might result for each of them from the previous Conventions relative to the exchange of publications, the High Contracting Parties undertake to exchange, as fast as they are published, at least in one copy:

- (a) all the current repertories of national bibliography of a general character ;
- (b) as far as possible, documents of every kind giving information on the recent acquisitions of their scientific libraries.

Article 2.

Each Contracting State agrees to take all measures which it judges desirable:

- (a) in order to make easily accessible to all interested parties the lists communicated to it according to Article 1;
- (b) in order to secure a favourable consideration of all the proposals of exchange which might be addressed to it by all the Contracting States with regard to scientific or literary publications included in the above-mentioned lists.

Article 3.

To facilitate generally the exchange of works which are the most important or most representative of the various types of national culture, the High Contracting Parties shall collect or catalogue the publications received by gift or otherwise which are available for international exchange. They will publish from time to time a list of these works.

This list will also give the names of works existing in duplicate in libraries, which may be exchanged.

Article 4.

The High Contracting Parties undertake to encourage in every way the multiplication of exchanges of scientific and literary publications, whether State-subsidised or not, between academies and learned societies, universities and scientific institutions, as laid down in Article 7 of the Convention of 1886.

Article 5.

The High Contracting Parties undertake to publish annual reports on the work of their exchange services. These reports shall be transmitted to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which shall publish extracts therefrom; together with a general report on the work of the international exchanges during the period in question.

¹ The last two paragraphs have been drafted by the Legal Section of the Secretariat of the League of Nations in accordance with the resolution and instructions of the Committee of experts, as approved by the Plenary Committee.

3. *Improvement of the Working of Exchange Services.*

1. The Committee of experts has noted that in many countries which were signatories to the Convention of 1886, and to an even greater extent in others, the working of the exchange services is considerably hampered by the smallness of the funds allotted to these services. While realising that the burdens which State budgets at present have to bear make it impossible to increase these funds to any great extent, the Committee of experts nevertheless expresses the hope that these services will be granted the sums they require in order to ensure the regular and rapid transmission of publications exchanged and a satisfactory supervision of the consignments.

2. The Committee of experts thinks it would be desirable, with a view to speeding-up the distribution of consignments, for the latter to be despatched directly to the recipients by the exchange service of the country of origin.

3. In cases in which it is impossible to employ sufficiently high-grade officials for the exchange services, the Committee of experts recommends the creation of a Supervisory Commission.

4. The Committee of experts expresses the hope that States which have accepted the 1886 Conventions without reservation will be willing to carry out all their provisions to the letter.

4. *Free Postage.*

The Committee of experts notes with satisfaction that a number of national exchange services enjoy the advantages of free postage within their respective countries and hopes that all Governments will see their way to extend this privilege to their exchange services and to publications sent to those services from within their respective countries.

The Committee of experts regards international free postage for exchange services as an essential condition of the full development of the organisation of exchange. It therefore requests the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to consult the Bureau of the Universal Postal Union as to the best method of obtaining free postage and to recommend that method to the Council and Assembly of the League of Nations.

5. *Various Recommendations.*

The Committee of experts, after considering the general problem of exchanges with a view to suggesting modifications to be made in the Conventions of 1886, finally reached certain conclusions on various points which cannot well be embodied in a draft international convention. The Committee feels that it is its duty to communicate these conclusions to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, requesting it, if it adopts the Committee's suggestions on these points, to be good enough to recommend them to all concerned.

A. The Committee of experts thinks it would be desirable:

(1) That all institutions which exchange their publications should publish periodically a list of the institutions with which they exchange;

(2) That learned societies should publish on the cover of the last number in each year of each of their publications as complete a list as possible of these publications;

(3) That the publications of learned societies, if produced in a language other than the principal European languages which are most widely known, should contain summaries in one of these more widely known languages.

(4) That scientific periodicals should grant reductions in price with a view to facilitate exchanges and subscriptions by libraries;

(5) That, in order to facilitate the acquisition of foreign books by libraries, as many agreements as possible should be concluded on the lines of that which the Universities Library for Central Europe has concluded with the "Amba" Institute at Vienna (see Annex 5 to the published report by M. de Reynold on the conditions of intellectual life in Austria — A. 62.1922.XII).

(6) That the libraries in which Governments deposit publications obtained by international exchange should be made readily accessible to all research workers.

B. The Committee of experts was led to consider the problem of international loans of books.

It immediately agreed to recommend that library duplicates should be utilised as far as possible for such loans.

In view, however, of the importance and complexity of the problem, it has not been able to discuss the matter in all its aspects, and it requests the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to instruct the Sub-Committee on Bibliography to conduct a minute enquiry into the question of international loans of books and manuscripts.

5. PUBLICATION OF LISTS OF NOTABLE BOOKS WHICH HAVE APPEARED IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD.

The Committee thinks it highly desirable that an annual list should be issued of notable recent books in each country. Such a list should be established in accordance with the following principles :

(1) The books should be chosen from among those dealing with an important subject or possessing a distinctive character and accessible to educated people ;

(2) Countries publishing each year (new books placed on the market):

10,000 books or upwards will be entitled to name	40 books
from 5,000 to 10,000 books	» » » » 25 »
from 2,500 to 5,000 books	» » » » 15 »
less than 2,500 books	» » » » 10 »

These numbers are subject to revision.

(3) The list will be sub-divided into the following subjects : history, law, the social sciences, theology, philosophy, *belles lettres*, art, geography, books of travel, philology and literary history, the exact sciences, the natural sciences and the applied sciences.

(4) The Committee entrusts to the Directing Board of the International University Information Office the duty of designating each year in each country, in agreement with the National Committees, a duly qualified person, who will draw up by March 1st at latest the list in respect of the country concerned. This person will consult the leading authorities of the country in each branch of intellectual activity.

The general list will be published as an annex to the *Bulletin* of the Office not later than July 1st. It will be published solely for purposes of reference.

It is understood that each country will mention its best books, without necessarily placing names in all the sub-divisions of the list.

A notice will be published every year at the head of each list to the effect that the list in question is only limited by reasons of necessity, that it is in no way exhaustive, and that it is published on the responsibility of the person who signed it.

6. PLACING IN REVIEWS OF SCIENTIFIC STUDIES WHICH THEIR AUTHORS ARE UNABLE TO PUBLISH.

The secretariat of the Committee will assist as far as possible in placing in the reviews and scientific collections of all countries studies of a scientific nature which their authors are unable to publish ; particular attention will be given to works coming from countries where the consequences of the war have delayed or prevented the appearance of scientific publications. These works may be submitted to the Secretariat either by a National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation or by a scientific institution or learned body, or by a very well-known savant. These transmissions by the National Committees or by the secretariat will in no case contain an appreciation of the scientific value of the works submitted. The editors of the reviews will be the sole judges of the possibility of insertion.

7. ENQUIRIES REGARDING ARCHIVES : PROPOSALS OF THE INSTITUTE OF HISTORICAL RESEARCH OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, having been asked by the Institute of Historical Research of the University of London to aid it in collecting information as to the conditions governing the work in the archives of the various countries ;

Having regard to the importance of the question submitted by this Institute, and, speaking generally, in view of the necessity of organising, from the international point of view, a documentation referring to the sources of manuscript which is for certain studies more important than the bibliography of printed books :

(1) Instructs its secretariat to transmit the questionnaire drawn up by the Institute of Historical Research to the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation, or, if such National Committees do not exist, to the directors of the national archives of all countries ;

(2) Decides to put the information thus obtained at the disposal of the Institute of Historical Research with a view to its regular publication in the *Bulletin* of the Institute, in conformity with the proposal made to the Committee ;

(3) Decides to publish later the whole of this information, with the possible collaboration of the Institute and of the editorial staff of the *Index Generalis*, in the form of a systematic catalogue similar to its *Index Bibliographicus* ;

(4) Decides to communicate its resolution to the International Committee on Historical Studies.

8. CO-ORDINATION OF LIBRARIES.

The Committee considers that, in order to carry out its previous resolution concerning the co-ordination of libraries, it is desirable at first to proceed to a thorough examination into the organisation of the great libraries and the connection existing between the libraries of the great towns and in particular in regard to the facilities of all kinds offered to foreign workers.

III. INTER-UNIVERSITY RELATIONS.

I. INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY INFORMATION OFFICE: ACTIVITY OF THE OFFICE.

(a) *Resolutions adopted at the Third Session.*

1. The Committee entrusts provisionally the scientific and technical direction of the International Office for University Information to a Directing Board, composed of M. de Reynold, Chairman, Mr. Coleman, M. de Halecki and M. Luchaire.

Dr. Nitobé is requested to take part in the sessions of this Committee as representing the Secretary-General of the League of Nations. The Secretary to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will act as Secretary to the Directing Board.

2. The Directing Board shall direct the activity of the Office in conformity with the programme established by the Committee. It shall in particular approve all circular letters and all official and important communications issued by the Office as well as the text of each number of the *Bulletin* before it is printed.

3. The Directing Board shall work in general by means of correspondence. It shall meet during the sessions of the University Sub-Committee. Extraordinary meetings may take place if the Chairman or two members of the Directing Board think necessary and if there are sufficient funds in the budget of the Office.

4. The Committee expresses the hope that, at times when the work of the Office is particularly large, one member of the Directing Board or one of the experts of the Committee may be able to work permanently at the seat of the Office. The Committee thinks that the necessary funds for this purpose could be taken from the budget of the Office and that the appointment of a secretary-shorthand typist could be postponed.

5. The Directing Board shall present each year to the Plenary Committee a report on the activity of the Office. This report shall be annexed to the general report to the Council and to the Assembly.

6. The Committee invites the Directing Board to begin its work by drawing up draft rules of procedure for the Office in collaboration with the Directors of the various National University Offices. These rules of procedure shall assume final form when approved by the Plenary Committee.

(b) *Resolutions adopted at the Fourth Session.*

I.

The essential duty of the Office shall be to collect and, as far as lies in its power, to make use of information of all kinds concerning the international aspects of university life and, in a lesser degree, concerning the organisation and activities of higher education in the different countries.

The Office shall be the executive organ of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in all matters connected with university questions.

II.

The Office shall work in conjunction with the national university offices and shall entrust to the appropriate national office all questions of particular interest to individual nations.

In countries in which no national office exists, the International Office shall use as an intermediary the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation or, in the absence of such committees, any other suitable organisations, such as the correspondents appointed by the International Committee or, failing such correspondents, any other properly qualified person.

The Office shall remain permanently in touch with international students' associations and particularly with the Central Office of the International Students' Federation.

III.

Until further notice the *Bulletin* shall be prepared by the Director of the Office, and the Chairman of the Directing Board shall be finally responsible for the *Bulletin* and shall sign the press proofs.

IV.

The Office shall, so far as its resources and its programme permit, take part in the general enquiry concerning intellectual life.

V.

The Office shall be placed under the direction of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which shall approve the annual report, appoint the Directing Board, reserve the right to assign to the Office any task which it may think fit and, in general, take all important decisions concerning the work of the Office.

VI.

The Provisional Directing Board was appointed, and its powers and duties defined, by the Committee in its resolution of December 8th, 1923.

The Board was constituted on an international basis, namely, the representation of the main linguistic groups.

VII.

The Provisional Directing Board is of opinion that during the present financial year its activities should consist mainly in assisting the Director of the Office in his work. Its members will therefore make every effort to co-operate with him as regularly as possible. In particular, they will obtain for him all necessary information on the questions studied by the Committee, more especially those of the exchange of professors and students, equivalence of degrees, holiday courses and international scholarships. They will take steps to carry into effect the resolution adopted by the Committee on behalf of students from countries having a depreciated exchange. They will assist the Office in maintaining as complete a documentation as possible on the international aspects of university life in all countries with which the members of the Provisional Directing Board are in communication. They will regularly assist in the preparation of the *Bulletin* and will give the utmost possible publicity to the work of the Office in the countries with which they are connected.

VIII.

The Directing Board recommends that, with a view to promoting relations with national offices, and, in general, with a view to assisting the working of the Office, a travelling fund should be established either from the credits at the disposal of the Office or from any resources which it may be able to obtain.

(c) *Conclusions of the Report of the Chairman of the Directing Board on the Office and Bulletin of the Office and Relations with the "Index Generalis" and "Minerva"*.

1. The Office *Bulletin* should appear every two months in one issue of 48 pages.
2. M. Montessus de Ballore, as expert to the Committee, should collaborate with the Office under the conditions laid down below ¹.
3. The Chairman of the Directing Board of the Office should be authorised to continue his personal negotiations with *Minerva* with a view to future co-operation.
4. The Directing Board of the Office and the Committee of Experts should be invited to meet in order to discuss the possibility of concentrating, in the Office and in its *Bulletin*, the enquiry into the conditions of intellectual life.

(d) *Meeting of the Directors of the Inter-University National Offices.*

Taking as a basis the former resolutions of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, the Directing Board attaches a special importance to the establishment of regular and close collaboration with national university offices and similar institutions.

With this object in view it proposes that the University Sub-Committee should organise a meeting to which would be invited the directors of these offices as well as representatives of certain National Committees which are at the moment establishing university offices in their respective countries.

This meeting, which, as far as possible, shall take place during the year 1925, ought to be prepared :

- (1) by visits of the Director of the International Office to the principal national Offices ;
- (2) by enquiries addressed to all the offices, which should be consulted as to whether such a meeting was opportune as well as on a limited number of definite questions to figure on the agenda. Among these questions the Directing Board desires to mention the following at the moment :

(a) Collaboration of the National Offices in the editing of the *Bulletin* of the International Office, and its circulation.

(b) Relations with individual universities through the intermediary of the national offices.

(c) Development of university co-operation with countries encountering special difficulties of a geographical, linguistic or economic character in this field.

(d) Encouragement of the creation of new national offices.

(e) Individual proposals by the Directors of national offices.

¹ M. Montessus de Ballore, docteur ès Sciences, will be appointed expert to the Committee for the purpose of collecting annual statistical information of all kinds regarding the universities, colleges, academies, archives, libraries, scientific institutes, botanical and zoological gardens, museums, observatories and learned societies in all countries. He will apply for such information on behalf of the International University Information Office and will forward it to that Office, arranged in a methodical manner and ready to be utilised in a form which will be established in detail by the Director of the Office in consultation with M. de Ballore. The Office will be entitled to make use of such information for individual communications to institutions or private persons, but not for purposes of publication, as M. de Ballore will retain the sole right to reproduce the information in a collective publication, for which he will assume sole responsibility. The Office will forward to M. de Ballore, for his publication, all information which it may receive from other quarters and which it may think fit to communicate to the public by this channel.

(e) *Representation of the Committee and of the Directing Board of the Office at the Congress of the International Students' Federation.*

The Directing Board draws the attention of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to the invitation which has been sent to it to send a representative of the Congress of the International Confederation of Students to be held at Warsaw in the month of September next.

In view of the importance of this Congress, the Directing Board is of opinion that it is very desirable that the Committee should accept this invitation. It considers it to be particularly desirable that the meeting of the Directing Board of the Office should take place at Warsaw during the Congress, should the budget of the Committee permit, or at least that several members of the Committee should be able to follow the deliberations of this great international assembly.

2. RESOLUTIONS ON THE PROPOSALS OF THE SPANISH GOVERNMENT ON THE QUESTIONS OF THE EQUIVALENCE OF DEGREES AND THE CREATION OF AN INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY.

The Committee has examined with the greatest attention the proposals of the Spanish Government. It is of opinion that they show the present importance of doing everything possible to combat in universities the tendency to isolation and the fostering of a spirit of nationalism, which are contrary to the good understanding between nations since they may prove harmful to the preservation of peace among mankind.

After having taken note of the reports presented by M. Halecki and M. Castillejo on the questions raised by the Spanish Government, the Committee thinks, with them, that obstacles, at the moment insurmountable, stand in the way of the immediate creation of an official international university.

1. *Equivalence of Degrees.*

The Committee considers it to be very desirable that States and universities which intend to reserve to themselves the exclusive right to hold all the examinations which their students are required to take should at least allow the students to carry on their preliminary studies for these examinations abroad, provided that certain guarantees be given.

The Committee thinks it desirable that the equivalent examinations for matriculation at the university should be as wide as possible.

The Committee recommends the institution, in countries where university examinations proper do not exist, of certificates delivered as proof of studies which have been carried out in a particular branch of science or group of kindred sciences. This does not imply that any traditional organisation should be abolished. These certificates should be easily recognised as of equivalent value in the different countries.

The Committee thinks it very desirable that States and universities should publish regularly a list of the equivalent values of courses and examinations to which they agree and that these lists should be officially exchanged. The University Information Office should be entrusted with the duty of collecting these lists and ensuring that the exchange takes place. The same lists should be published in the *Bulletin* of the Office.

The Committee recalls the fact that it has already passed a recommendation concerning the delivery of an international university "livret". It is of opinion that it is desirable that this "livret" should be recognised by the competent authorities.

The Committee considers that an international understanding concerning the definition of university diplomas would be of great value.

The Committee, considering the proposal of the Spanish Government implies the attribution of an international value to university degrees in order that persons possessing them may exercise their professions, which proposal appears to be impossible of realisation for the moment, and noting, on the other hand, that certain countries allow those of their nationals who have carried out their studies abroad to exercise their profession in their own country, recommends the extension of this practice in the interest of the development of international intellectual relations.

2. *International University.*

The Committee recalls the fact that it has already on several occasions passed recommendations and resolutions with the object of bringing about in the most practical manner the collaboration of universities, the easy access of professors and students from one country to another and, by these means, the organisation not of the internationalisation of universities but of the universalisation of the higher forms of education and the creation of a great university confraternity throughout the world.

The Committee recalls the fact, in particular, that it adopted a text, which was approved by the Council of the League of Nations. (See text of these resolutions in the *Bulletin* of the International University Information Office, 1st year, No. 3. pp. 111-115).

The Committee further is of opinion that the measures already taken by States and universities to facilitate university exchanges of every kind are already so numerous and so important that a complete table of the means actually at the disposal of the university world to effect these exchanges would soon increase this practice. It is taking steps to make known these measures as widely as possible through its Information Office. The Committee deems it, nevertheless, to be its duty, as a result of the suggestions of the Spanish Government, to propose the following new resolutions :

1. The Committee recommends States and universities, while fully preserving their autonomy, to grant as far as possible the same value in respect of all benefits accruing therefrom to courses given by foreign professors on the invitation of the universities as to courses given by national professors.

2. The Committee is of opinion that international scientific institutes are of first importance in promoting intellectual co-operation. It recommends those States, universities and scientific associations which possess such institutes to open them as far as possible to foreign students. It recalls the fact that these institutes ought to be regularly and generously supported financially.

3. The Committee, with reference to a proposal concerning the course of lectures on modern nations, and desiring to draw attention once more to the exceptional importance of this proposal, recommends that schools, institutes or permanent educational organisations should be established in the principal centres. These organisations should be formed with the object of carrying out a methodical study of the great international problems of the moment and of the problems connected with the economic, political and moral life of modern nations. It recalls the fact that a beginning has already been made — for example, in the international courses delivered at the Universities of Geneva and Vienna, at the International University of Brussels, the Academy of International Law at The Hague, international courses at the University at Chicago and the Williams College, the courses at the University of London and at the University of Aberystwyth, etc.

The Committee proposes that these schools, institutes and organisations should maintain regular relations with each other and with the Committee in order to assure a certain unity in the general conduct of the instruction, which is of such great value in bringing about an understanding between various schools of thought in accordance with the principles of the League of Nations. It also approves the suggestion of M. Castillejo that an organisation for instruction in the international problems raised by the new legal, social and economic state of affairs, as represented principally by the League of Nations, should be established to work in connection with the League.

(For the discussion on this subject, see the *Bulletin* of the International University Information Office, 1st year, No. 3, pp. 101-110).

3. THE CINEMATOGRAPH AND INTELLECTUAL LIFE.

The Committee considers that progress in teaching is closely bound up with the popularisation of the new methods of spreading knowledge, and among these methods the cinematograph is one of the most powerful, and at the same time of an acknowledged international character.

The Committee considers further that, owing to the strong influence exercised by cinematographs on the human mind, it is important that particular attention should be directed, in so far as education and science are concerned, to the development of this art.

The Committee recalls the fact that, with regard to scientific and scholastic films, properly so called, it has expressed in a previous resolution its sympathy with the work undertaken by the Swiss Federation of Students and invites this Federation to present a detailed and final scheme for an international committee for university cinematograph instruction.

The Committee considers it very desirable that the intellectual needs of mankind should receive more general attention and respect from all those who are responsible for the development of the cinematograph industry, and with this end in view it would welcome any suggestions from authorised persons belonging to the great producing countries to meet shortly to examine the means whereby, thanks to a better international entente, the cinematograph might exercise a fruitful influence on the development of culture.

The Committee is of opinion that the publication of an international catalogue of scientific films would serve a useful purpose. It instructs the International Office of University Information to come to an understanding with the Swiss Federation of Students regarding the drawing up of this catalogue.

The Committee would welcome with pleasure the meeting of an international congress of cinematography in the programme of which the scientific, artistic and educational interests affected by the development of cinematography would be the first question to be examined. A member of the Directing Board of the International Office might attend such a congress.

The Committee recommends the organisation of an international exhibition of scientific pictures and pictures for other educational purposes, both fixed and moving.

4. "NUMERUS CLAUSUS".

The Committee, having been informed by the Jewish delegations of a protest concerning the *numerus clausus*, is obliged to state that this question is not within its competence. The problem of the regime of minorities, and consequently that of the *numerus clausus*, concerns, on the one hand, the sovereignty of nations, and accordingly their right to legislate independently in university matters, and, on the other hand, within the limits determined by the Treaties, it concerns the Council of the League of Nations.

The Committee considers, further, that university life, which is a manifestation of the highest intellectual interests of mankind, ought to be carried on everywhere with entire regularity and that the greatest efforts should be made on every side to prevent it from being

disturbed. It is finally of opinion that it is desirable that, as far as the social, economic and political conditions of each nation permit, any person intellectually capable of benefiting from higher education should have free access to the establishments in which that education is provided.

5. MUTUAL INTER-UNIVERSITY ASSISTANCE.

I. The Committee is of opinion that the moment has come to carry out the following resolution, approved and ratified by the Assembly and by the Council :

"The Committee proposes that the universities of countries economically ruined should enter into relation with universities of countries which are more favourably placed ; the former universities would forward to the latter universities the names of students who, having regard to their intellectual qualifications, were the most meritorious, and the latter universities would agree to accept these students and would afford them all requisite facilities, particularly in the form of grants and scholarships, to enable them to attend these universities for the purpose of continuing their studies. Such an arrangement might be drawn up conjointly with those National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation which have already been set up, or which may be set up in the future, in various countries, and also with the great international students' associations."

It consequently proposes that an enquiry should be addressed to Governments (ministries of education) and higher schools, in order to ascertain in what measure they would be prepared to place scholarships and grants at the disposal of the most deserving students of countries with a depreciated exchange.

Similar requests, according to the wishes expressed by the International Confederation of Students, will be made to the same Governments regarding Custom and transport facilities.

Further, the Committee proposes that Governments and higher educational establishments of countries with a depreciated exchange should be requested to draw up a small list of students specially qualified to be admitted to the benefits of scholarships and grants in foreign countries. These lists should be accompanied with all the necessary certificates. The Committee is of opinion that the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation are specially qualified to act as intermediary. Account shall be taken of the recommendations made by the various national unions of students. Information thus obtained and the proposals made by the various parties shall be published immediately in the *Bulletin* of the International University Information Office.

The Committee has noted with great interest the results obtained in the field of intellectual collaboration by means of international associations of students, particularly by the European Student Relief of the World's Student Christian Federation. It requests the National Committees to get into touch with that organisation in regard to all matters pertaining to student relief. It notes with satisfaction that other international federations of students have been associated in this work.

The Committee further draws the attention of the National Committees to the international fellowships distributed by the International Federation of University Women, with which it will be necessary to remain in regular contact.

II. The Committee thinks it desirable that each student should possess a "livret" either of a national or of an international character, in which the administration of each university shall be required to insert such information as may prove useful regarding the course of studies carried out by the student in the universities of his own country or in foreign universities.

III. The Committee, after having heard the statements of the International Associations of Students in favour of the establishment of an International University Information Office under the auspices of the League of Nations, instructs the special committee appointed to govern this office to enter into relations with the representatives of those associations so that, in drawing up the rules of procedure of this office, a permanent contact may be ensured with the International Students Associations, and particularly with the Central Office of the International Confederation of Students.

IV. The Committee is of opinion that it is most desirable that a close collaboration should be established between the associations of students and the organisations for informing, receiving or placing students in universities created under the direction of States, universities or patronage committees. It recommends that the means of establishing this collaboration should be examined in each country, account being taken of existing institutions.

V. The Committee has noted with the greatest interest a scheme regarding the manufacture and distribution of educational films ; this scheme, drawn up by the Swiss Federation of Students, has been transmitted to the International Confederation of Students. The Committee will follow with sympathy the drafting and execution of this scheme, and declares itself ready to give its support should the necessity arise.

VI. The Committee, in view of the usefulness of students' organisations, particularly for travelling students, recommends States, or the qualified institutions, to support financially these organisations in as large a measure as possible.

6. PROPOSALS FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL LIFE IN THE COUNTRIES OF CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE.

After having taken note of the results of the enquiry regarding the needs of university life in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, the Committee decides :

1. To approve of the resolutions adopted on the subject by the Provisional Committee of Direction of the International University Information Office ;

2. To entrust the Sub-Committee on Intellectual Property with the study of a scheme for the establishment of an international fund for borrowing and credit purposes, with the object of supplying professors travelling abroad for scientific purposes with the necessary sums for their expenses and for the purchase of instruments indispensable to University institutes ;

3. To request the Assembly to invite States to grant to professors travelling abroad for scientific purposes travelling facilities similar to those which certain States have granted to groups of students ;

4. To authorise the Sub-Committee for University Relations to get into touch at one of its next sessions with the principal institutes established in the Western countries for the study of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, specially with the Institute of Slavonic Studies in Paris, the School of Slavonic Studies in London, and the "Istituto per l'Europa Orientale" in Rome ;

5. To recommend to the national committees concerned the joint extension and development of the "Instituts à l'Etranger", with a view to establishing and drawing closer the intellectual bonds between the countries of Central and Eastern Europe and the Western countries ;

6. To encourage special conferences between the national committees belonging to these two groups of countries with a view not only to realising the previous recommendation but, generally speaking, the former wishes of the International Commission with regard to inter-university exchanges ;

7. To commence the study of the problem of post-graduate scientific research which particularly concerns certain countries of Central Europe but is of equal interest for all other countries of the world.

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the Members of the League and
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Geneva, August 12th, 1924.

League of Nations

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

MINUTES

OF THE

COMMITTEE OF EXPERTS

ON THE

International Exchange of Publications

Geneva, July 17th to July 19th, 1924.

COMMITTEE OF EXPERTS ON THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS
GENEVA, July 17th to 19th, 1924.

MEMBERS:

- Polish Expert M. O. de HALECKI, Professor at the University of
Warsaw, *Chairman*.
- French Expert M. J. LUCHAIRE, Inspector-General of Public Educa-
tion, France.
assisted by M. BARRAU-DIHIGO, Chief Librarian of the Faculty
of Chemistry of Paris.
- Belgian Service of International Exchanges M. Eugène BACHA, Director.
- Italian Service of International Exchanges M. Vittorio BENEDETTI, Director.
- United States Expert Mr. H. DORSEY, Chief Clerk of the Smithsonian
Institution, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.
- British Expert Mr. B. M. HEADICAR, Librarian, London School of
Economics, Honorary Secretary of the Uni-
versities Library for Central Europe.¹

¹ The Latin-American Expert not being able to be present at the meeting, the Committee decided to ask M. Rodriguez, of the Latin-American Bureau of the Secretariat, to attend.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
FIRST MEETING, held on July 17th, 1924, at 10 a.m.	
1. Opening of the Meeting	5
2. Agenda	5
3. General Discussion: Statements of the Experts	5
4. Representation of Latin America	7
SECOND MEETING, held on July 17th, 1924, at 3 p.m.	
5. Statement by the Chairman	8
6. Representation of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union	8
7. Procedure	8
8. Limitation of the Automatic Exchange of certain Official Publications	9
9. Extension of the Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications; Semi-Official Publications; Lists	11
THIRD MEETING, held on July 18th, 1924, at 10 a.m.	
10. Extension of the Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications; Semi-Official Publications; Lists (<i>continuation of the discussion</i>)	13
11. Non-Official Publications: Draft Convention proposed by the Chairman	14
FOURTH MEETING, held on July 18th, 1924, at 3 p.m.	
12. Non-Official Publications: Draft Convention proposed by the Chairman; Additional Article by M. Luchaire	17
13. Acquisition of Scientific Publications by National Bureaux: Proposal of Mr. Headicar	17
14. Working of the Exchange Services	18
FIFTH MEETING, held on July 19th, 1924, at 10 a.m.	
15. Article 4 of the Draft Convention proposed by the Chairman	20
16. Working of the Exchange Services	20
17. Free Postage	21
18. Additional Protocol to the Brussels Convention of 1886	22
19. Draft Convention: the Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications	22
20. Other Suggestions	22
21. Lending of Books	23
22. Consultation of Official Publications	24
23. Customs and Exchange Services	24
24. Report of the Committee of Experts to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation	24
25. Relations with Latin America	24
26. Close of the Meeting	24

FIRST MEETING.

Held on July 17th, 1924, at 10 a.m.

1. Opening of the Meeting.

M. BERGSON, Chairman of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, thanked the experts for having responded to the appeal of the Committee, whose duty it was to take all measures of an international kind which would enable it to fulfil its mandate. The exchange of publications was clearly the first of these measures.

This had been the subject of consideration for many years.

As early as 1886, Conventions had been drawn up at Brussels, but they had only been signed by a limited number of States, and only referred to a limited number of publications. The question which arose at the moment was to know if it was possible to enlarge the basis on which these Conventions had been concluded. It was the task of the experts to reply to this question. If, after thorough examination, no means were found of enlarging the basis on which the conventions had been concluded at Brussels, it would be a very great disappointment for the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Formerly, great difficulties had been encountered in the drawing up and application of the Conventions. Since then, great events had taken place. Intellectual life had almost become an impossibility in several countries, in which it was even threatened with extinction if no attempt were made to come to the help of these countries. Fortunately, a new conception of the relations between nations had signalled the advent of a new spirit of justice and generosity. It was in this spirit which animated the League of Nations that the task entrusted to the experts should be approached.

With regard to the exchange of publications, if a more fortunate nation gave more than it received, it was in no way a loser, because it spread abroad its opinions and propagated its thoughts and its influence. It was the best form of propaganda and the cheapest.

On the proposal of M. Bergson, M. de Halecki took the chair.

M. Bergson withdrew.

M. de HALECKI thanked his colleagues for the great honour they had done him in accepting the proposal of M. Bergson. He recalled the fact that he was entrusted with the representation of the interests of several Central European countries which attached great importance to the exchange of publications.

2. Agenda.

1. Improvement of existing arrangements for the exchange of publications.
2. Limitation of the automatic exchange of certain official publications.
3. Extension of the exchange of scientific and literary publications.
4. Free postage.

On the proposal of M. HEADICAR, it was decided to add a fifth heading, namely, "Other business".

The agenda was adopted.

3. General Discussion: Statements of the Experts.

M. BACHA was of the opinion that the historical statement contained in M. de Halecki's pamphlet on exchange of publications was of very great interest, but it did not emphasise two tendencies which had become apparent in the domain of international exchanges. Some contemplated an exchange covering the whole production of each country, whereas others thought it possible only to exchange publications of existing organisations. He had developed his ideas in an article in the *Revue Belge* of July 15th, 1924, which he read¹, and in his report (Annex 1). The latter ended with the following conclusions:

"To summarise: With a view to building up the most comprehensive system of exchange possible, both of official publications between States and scientific publications between learned societies, I would propose that we should submit to the States for signature a new Convention, under the terms of which they would undertake:

"1. To exchange their official gazette, while reserving the right to subject the exchange of all other official publications to such conditions as they think fit.

¹ This article, which is entitled "International Exchange of Publications", is to be found in the archives of the Secretariat, where it can be consulted.

"2. To issue a list of their official publications and a list of their learned societies, the sale of which would be a source of income.

"3. To send free of charge all scientific publications for abroad forwarded through the national exchange bureau.

"4. To send these publications direct to the addressees in return for the economy realised as a result of their no longer having to distribute, within the country, the foreign publications, which would also be sent direct to the addressees.

"5. To invite their universities, academies, and official scientific establishments to exchange theses, memoranda and works with similar institutions abroad.

"6. To invite their national libraries to establish a collection of *duplicates* presented by the authors, which might be lent on a reciprocal basis from library to library.

"7. To send to every exchange bureau one copy of each purely bibliographical publication published in the country.

"8. To make a grant to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for the publication of a *Year-Book of the International Exchange Services*."

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Bacha for his statement. He did not think that there was any fundamental opposition between the two theses submitted, as he would try and show later.

M. BENEDETTI summarised his report (Annex 2), in which he recommended that the exchange of official publications should be limited to those for which a request had been made, so that they should go to the libraries and governmental offices where they would be very useful, and where they would give the maximum of return with the minimum of cost to the Governments.

With regard to academic publications, he recommended the return to free contracts between all manner of institutions in the different countries by the assigning to the exchange bureau the task of aiding in every possible way exchanges between workers and to ensure the rapid despatch of the works to be exchanged.

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Benedetti for his explanations and called on Mr. Dorsey, who had been kind enough to come from Washington to put his great experience at the service of the Committee.

Mr. DORSEY summarised his report (Annex 3), which ended with the following conclusions:

"That the time is inopportune to attempt the ratification of new treaties for international exchanges, and that the present treaties are sufficiently broad, if fully carried out.

"That the Committee recommends that the attention of the various countries which have adhered to the Treaty be drawn to the importance of a full compliance with its terms, particularly the article requiring the publication and exchange of lists of official publications."

And:

"That the signatory countries be urged to provide adequate financial support to enable the exchange bureaux to function effectually and promptly.

"That the Committee considers the utilisation for reference purposes of the 250,000 reference cards to scientific literature of 1915 now stored at the Central Bureau of the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature in London, and the index cards for approximately 2,000,000 references to the literature of 1916-1924 now in the hands of the regional bureaux in the various countries throughout the world, as a partial substitute for the proposal that the various exchange bureaux issue classified bibliographies of the learned societies and establishments in the several countries.

"That the Committee recommends that an effort be made to secure through the influence of the League the granting of an international postal frank for the forwarding of publications sent strictly as donations or exchanges."

The CHAIRMAN thanked Mr. Dorsey for his summary, and called upon the representative of Great Britain, where the question of exchanges had been dealt with by private organisations, such as the one represented by Mr. Headicar, although Great Britain had not ratified the 1886 Conventions.

Mr. HEADICAR summarised his report (Annex 4), in which he recommended that the Committee should retain the following points:

1. Publication of a monthly list of parliamentary and official documents.
2. Notification to be sent by scientific societies to the National Bureau of any transactions, proceedings, monographs or various papers published under their auspices.
3. Agreements between countries concerning the purchase of books.
4. The establishment of clearing-houses.

The CHAIRMAN thanked Mr. Headicar for his report and called upon M. Barrau-Dihigo, the expert appointed by the French Government to accompany M. Luchaire, and state its point of view on the question of exchanges.

M. BARRAU-DIHIGO recalled the fact that France sent to foreign countries official publications, publications from French academies, the learned societies and great scientific establishments, and of theses for doctorates.

With regard to official publications, they were sent on request. The first task of the Committee ought to be to define the terms "official publications". Certain ministries, such as those of Public Works, of War, of the Navy and of Agriculture, produced publications which were certainly of an official character, but which were also strictly scientific. With regard to publications of academies and learned societies, the Exchange Bureau would serve as the agent for their transmission. Societies made great use of the facilities granted to them, and in this field it seemed to him to be difficult to take any further steps.

The list of publications of which mention had been made would be particularly useful for the making known of records, bulletins and memoranda of universities and certain institutions, as, for example, the Museum of Natural History. Since 1882, the French doctorate theses had been regularly exchanged. Regarding literary and historical questions, these constituted a very important part of French production. Up till 1914, Germany, which possessed 21 universities, benefited in a large degree from this exchange.

Since 1923, a great effort had been made to develop the exchange of doctorate theses, especially in newly created countries, and France was very ready to extend exchanges beyond the scope of official publications.

M. LUCHAIRE said that he would confine himself to putting forward certain observations of a general nature.

The Committee owed it to the League of Nations to look for practical solutions, and to give the impression that it was concerned with future development. Statements made by specialists and experts had shown that it was possible to contemplate the adoption of definite conclusions. It was a question of re-drafting the Conventions in a form which would be acceptable to all, and, at the same time, of making progress. These two points of view were not irreconcilable. In the present state of the question, even those States which had not ratified the international Conventions had, in practice, organised an exchange of publications. It was this situation which now required to be regulated, but that regulation should take place in such a manner as not to destroy anything which was already in existence.

It would not be sufficient to invite the League of Nations again to approach the various Governments. Some new steps must be taken, and the present texts of the Conventions should be amended in order to make them acceptable to States which had not yet adhered to them. The application of these Conventions might be rendered easier perhaps by reducing the obligations which they imposed, but prudence should be shown and care should be taken not to injure the obligatory principle underlying the Conventions, which it would be useful to maintain.

The Committee could discuss successively the following points:

1. Exchange of official publications and definition of this term.
2. Exchange of academic publications (semi-official).
3. Exchange of non-official publications. It was desirable to extend the present system to cover all kinds of publications but not to all publications.
4. Lists of publications.
5. Clearing-houses. Constitution in each country of collections of publications to be used for the purposes of exchanges and lending.
6. Improvement of the exchange offices.
7. Free postage. The rapid transmission of publications.

When the Committee had decided upon what line it would take with regard to these various points, it would have to modify the texts of the Conventions of 1886, if the necessity arose.

The CHAIRMAN noted that the questions mentioned by M. Luchaire were all to be found on the agenda which the Committee had adopted. The exchange of semi-official publications and the question of the lists of these could be dealt with under point 3 of the agenda: "Extension of the Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications".

The question of clearing-houses might be dealt with under point 5 of the agenda: "Other Business". Questions of procedure also fell under this heading.

The Committee ought to decide how its conclusions should be communicated to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and to the Assembly through the intermediary of the Council.

4. Representation of Latin America.

The CHAIRMAN recalled the fact that an expert for Latin America was to be appointed and asked M. Rodriguez, of the Latin-American Bureau of the Secretariat, to give certain explanations to the Committee.

M. RODRIGUEZ stated that the Government of Paraguay had unfortunately not replied to the request which had been sent to it to appoint an expert, and that he would forward the conclusions of the Committee to the States of Latin America after reaching an understanding with the Director of the Section of International Bureaux and with the Secretary-General. The question of exchanges had aroused the interest of public opinion and of the Governments in Latin America.

States of Latin America published numerous official publications, but only a small number of these States adhered to the Conventions of 1886. M. Rodriguez was ready to undertake all possible means of propaganda in order to induce the States of Latin America to adhere to these Conventions.

SECOND MEETING.

Held on July 17th, 1924, at 3 p.m.

Chairman: M. O. de HALECKI.

Present: All the members of the Committee.

5. Statement by the Chairman.

The CHAIRMAN began by summarising his report on the extension of the international exchange of publications (Annex 5). He reminded the Committee of the discussion which took place on this subject at the Polish Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and of the opinions which he had received from several other National Committees in Central Europe, in particular the Austrian and the Czechoslovak Committees. He dwelt on the necessity of respecting the present Conventions, of facilitating the adhesion of the States which could not accept them as they now stood by making possible adhesions with reservations, and, finally, of drafting a new convention which would develop the exchange of scientific and literary publications.

6. Representation of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union.

The CHAIRMAN regretted that the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union had not been able to send a representative to the meeting to furnish it with detailed information as to the essential question of free postage.

The SECRETARY of the Committee explained that the Director of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union was at the moment in Stockholm, accompanied by all the members of the Bureau who were specially well acquainted with the question of free postage.

7. Procedure.

The CHAIRMAN said there seemed to be a divergence of opinion among the experts with regard to the Brussels Conventions of 1886. Several of them thought that there should be no hesitation in changing them; others were of the opinion that they should be left untouched for the moment. Was it desired to postpone this question for the end of the discussion when questions of detail had been examined, or should the general principles be settled now?

M. LUCHAIRE was of the opinion that everybody intended to respect the text of the Conventions of 1886. Nevertheless, it was advisable to adapt it to existing circumstances. It seemed to him that the discussion of the particular points should be taken at once. The question could then be discussed whether the text of the Conventions could be modified or whether it should merely be completed by additional clauses.

M. BACHA was of the opinion that no engagement should be entered into then to maintain the letter of the text of the Conventions of 1886, but an attempt should be made to respect its spirit. In point of fact, it would be enough to change two words in Article 2 of the first Convention to adapt it to existing circumstances. Instead of "the publications that the contracting States agree to exchange", he proposed "*shall exchange at will*". There was then no subject for discussion. What had prevented many States from signing the Convention was the obligation imposed upon them to exchange *all* their publications. This difficulty remained if the text of the Convention were maintained in its entirety. By authorising the States to exchange at will, the position was made easier for them, and many signatories to the Convention would be gained.

The CHAIRMAN said that, as a result of the exchange of views which had taken place, the experts, without in any way wishing to anticipate conclusions which might result from future discussions, were of the opinion that the Convention should, as far as possible, be respected.

Mr. DORSEY remarked that, by changing the text of the Convention in the one point mentioned by M. Bacha, its fundamental principle was attacked.

Mr. HEADICAR shared the point of view of Mr. Dorsey. He would also prefer that the text of the Convention should remain unaltered.

M. BACHA explained that the efforts of the Committee should be directed merely to changing the Convention in order to facilitate its adoption.

M. BARRAU-DIHIGO said that two very different cases were under consideration on the one hand, the case of States which had adhered to the Convention of 1886, and were satisfied with it, and, on the other hand, the case of States which had not adhered to the Convention in its present form, and which would not adhere to it if no modification were made. It would be advisable, in his opinion, to contemplate some form of rider which would allow of these latter States adhering to the Convention.

The CHAIRMAN proposed to deal with the second point of the agenda ("Limitation of the Automatic Exchange of certain Official Publications") before the first point ("Improvement of the Existing Arrangements for the Exchange of Publications").

The Committee adopted the view of the Chairman, who opened a discussion on point 2 of the agenda.

8. Limitation of the Automatic Exchange of certain Official Publications.

M. BENEDETTI wished that some explanation should be given to him of the meaning of the expression "limitation of the automatic exchange".

The CHAIRMAN said that the Committee should not lose sight of the fact that its object was to find a means of procuring the adhesion of the States which had not signed the first Convention of 1886. As a result of the discussions, two concrete proposals had been made — first, the proposal of M. Bacha, namely, the addition to Article 2 of the words "at will"; secondly, the proposal of M. Barrau-Dihigo, which was in favour of a rider to the Convention.

Mr. HEADICAR asked that, above all, the meaning and import of the expression "official publications" should be defined. Speaking for himself, he understood by "official publications" all publications which appeared under the auspices of a Government, which were drawn up by it, or published at its expense.

The CHAIRMAN said that his answer to the question of M. Headicar would be found in Article 2 of the Convention of 1886.

M. BACHA asked whether the Committee wished to declare itself in favour of the exchange of all official publications, or only of a limited exchange of these publications. This was a point on which an understanding was necessary.

Mr. DORSEY was of the opinion that the text of the Convention should be left intact, and that the States should be allowed to adhere to it in a conditional manner.

M. BACHA said that this implied a contradiction. The Committee desired to cause the greatest possible number of States to exchange their official publications. That which had held them back up to then was precisely that clause of the Convention which obliged them to transmit all their publications. M. Bacha wished, therefore, that the principle might be admitted that the States should put the whole of their publications at the disposal of foreign Governments, and should only transmit those for which an express request had been made.

M. BENEDETTI was in agreement with M. Bacha, and emphasised the fact that the British Government had replied that it was obliged to refuse its adhesion to the Conventions in their present form. He thought that it was advisable to amend the clause which was an obstacle to the adhesion of the States.

Mr. HEADICAR drew the attention of the Committee to the fact that it was the former British Government, the Conservative Government, which had refused its adhesion in 1923. The new British Government attached, on the other hand, very great importance to the distribution of its official publications.

M. BENEDETTI observed that not only Great Britain, but also Germany and Austria-Hungary had refused to adhere to the indiscriminate exchange of all official publications.

The CHAIRMAN stated that everybody was in agreement on this, namely, that many countries would never adhere to the present text of the Convention. It was necessary to make a distinction between the two groups of States — those which had adhered to the Convention in its present form, and, on the other hand, those which would adhere to it with reservations concerning Article 2.

Mr. DORSEY said it would not be inconsistent to admit that certain States, by virtue of new provisions, should be authorised to exchange only a part of their publications, whereas the signers of the original Convention engaged to exchange all of them with those States which reciprocated in like manner.

M. BACHA said that the important point was to gain the adhesion of the greatest possible number of countries. The formula should be that all countries should exchange their publications, even if they did not exchange *all* their publications. As a result, those who wished to exchange all their publications should be at liberty to do so, and the Committee should occupy itself with gaining the adhesion of the other countries in whose ranks many great intellectual countries were to be found, such as France, Great Britain, Germany, the Netherlands, and Denmark.

M. BENEDETTI was entirely in agreement with M. Bacha. The obligation to exchange should be limited, but not the interchangeable matter. The great States would then be able to adhere, and also those who, for financial reasons, had refrained from doing so up to then.

M. LUCHAIRE said that the problem was a complex one, and many circumstances were constantly adding to its difficulties. M. Barrau-Dihigo had just told him that certain States which had undertaken to agree to the provisions of Article 2, did not observe them. He personally viewed the question from the point of view of the general interest which the problem had for the learned world. It was essential not to reduce the terms of the obligation too radically, and, on the other hand, it was necessary to facilitate agreement to the Convention on the part of the States which had not already adhered to it. In his opinion, a compromise should be found. Article 2 could be left intact, and a further rider could be added to the first Convention, which could be later modified by an additional protocol.

Mr. HEADICAR supported this point of view; the Conventions should remain intact for the Powers which had signed them, and adhesion to them on the part of other States should be made possible.

M. BACHA thought that an agreement could be reached by adding to the text "the publications which the contracting States agree to exchange", the words "*whether all publications were sent, or only a part*". This was the open door for the non-signatory States.

Mr. HEADICAR said that a grave difficulty might arise. Those other States which had already signed the Convention might make this re-drafting a pretext for not holding to the engagements to which they had previously subscribed.

M. BACHA stated that the retention of Article 2 of the Convention in its present form was undoubtedly an obstacle to its universal adoption. On the other hand, it was desired to retain the positions which had been won. It should be remembered that the adhesion of a great number of States was a practical impossibility if the Convention were not amended. The Committee was in the position of having to try to please everybody. M. Bacha saw no hope of success except in the amendment which he had proposed.

Mr. DORSEY said that for financial reasons certain States could only adhere partially. Those which had signed the Convention in the form in which it existed at the moment would, therefore, be at a disadvantage because of this fact, and provision should be made to relieve the latter States of the obligation to supply all their publications to the former States.

The CHAIRMAN was of the opinion that this was in reality a question of drafting. He wished that the supporters of the proposal to add an additional protocol to the Convention should present a text.

M. LUCHAIRE put at the disposal of the Committee a draft text which he had prepared. While retaining Article 2 of the Convention, he proposed the following rider:

"States which have not yet adhered to the Convention of 1886, and which regard the obligation contained in Article 2 as imposing too heavy a burden, whether on account of the great number of their official publications, or owing to their financial situation, may adhere to the Convention subject to the reservation that they may at their convenience limit the number of publications sent thereto and give financial compensation instead. Exchanges between such States and States which have adhered to the Convention of 1886 shall be governed by the same principle."

The CHAIRMAN thanked M. Luchaire for the care which he had taken in drafting the text. He observed that the principle of an equivalence in the value of exchanges might raise certain objections.

M. BACHA agreed with the text of M. Luchaire, but it would not be in any way advisable to introduce the idea of financial compensation into the text of the rider.

M. BENEDETTI gave the example of the Italian Ministry of Finance, which had drawn up a list of its publications. The Italian Office sent this list to the foreign offices and to the interested ministries, and on their request transmitted its publications to them. An "automatic exchange" had thus been established.

The CHAIRMAN recognised the importance of the question of lists, but the reservation which was being discussed referred only to Article 2 of the Convention. Whatever decision was reached, the State would not be less bound by the obligations imposed on it by Article 3, relating to the printing of its publications.

Mr. DORSEY thought that it was inopportune to set limits to the commercial value of the exchanges. The old signatories should undertake to exchange a certain part of their publications with the new signatories, as might be agreed between them.

M. LUCHAIRE thought he had expressed the wish of Mr. Dorsey in the text which he had proposed.

The SECRETARY read the final text of the resolution proposed by M. Luchaire, *which was adopted by the Committee*:

"States which have not yet adhered to the Convention of 1886, and which regard the obligation contained in Article 2 as imposing too heavy a burden, whether on account of the great number of their official publications, or owing to their financial situation, or for any other reason, may adhere to the Convention subject to the reservation that they may, by agreement with any country, limit the number of publications sent thereto. Exchanges between such States and States which have adhered to the Convention without reservation shall be governed by the same principle."

The CHAIRMAN was glad that the discussion had led to such good results, and thanked the members of the Committee for their spirit of conciliation.

9. Extension of the Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications; Semi-Official Publications; Lists.

Mr. HEADICAR asked for a precise definition of the term "official publications". He mentioned the case of a ministry contributing largely to the cost of a publication of a work which did not appear under its auspices.

The CHAIRMAN thought that this type of publication was in the category of non-official publications subsidised by the government. In 1886, when the Conventions were drawn up, it had already been thought that compulsory exchanges might be extended to non-official publications subsidised by the governments. At the moment the obligations of the governments were limited to official publications, but it would be possible to extend them to cover every form of subsidised publication. The societies or the individuals who were benefited by government subsidies would put a certain number of copies at the disposal of the governments for international exchange.

Mr. HEADICAR said that there was a practical difficulty. If the State required that a part of the publications which it had subsidised should be returned to it, the terms of contract between author and publisher would entirely change.

M. BARRAU-DIHIGO thought that it was in practice impossible to impose such an obligation.

M. BACHA thought that, since the publications subsidised by the governments were of a scientific kind, they would necessarily be exchanged, by the organisations which compiled them, for publications of a similar type.

With regard to the State, it could only forward those copies which it received to the central foreign libraries or scientific institutions which otherwise would have to buy them. It would, therefore, deprive the publishing organisation of one of the surest means it had of practically enriching its library and receiving a monetary return, which it could only do by exchange or by sale. The State would very severely injure the publishing organisation in removing from it in this way the subscribers to its publications. In addition, in nearly all the big libraries funds existed which were specially devoted to these purchases.

Mr. HEADICAR insisted on the necessity of precisely defining the term "official publications". If all publications which the government subsidised were to be considered in this category, the definition covered too wide a field.

The CHAIRMAN said it was understood that only those which were drawn up and published by the order, and at the expense, of a government were to be considered as official publications.

M. BARRAU-DIHIGO said that all the publications which the Government subsidised should not then be considered as official publications.

M. RODRIGUEZ explained the point of view of Latin America. Europe was a continent with an ancient civilisation, where exchanges were established, as it were, automatically between university and university, learned institution and learned institution. In Latin America, where such a state of affairs did not exist, the government directly subsidised the authors, whatever might be the nature of the work upon which they were engaged, by buying a certain number of their works. They were then divided among the national libraries in the different provinces. It would be dangerous to endeavour to force Latin America to adhere to international exchanges of subsidised publications. The government needed the books it bought for its own libraries.

The CHAIRMAN pointed out once more that it was clear that all subsidised publications were not publications for compensatory exchange. He asked M. Luchaire for a definition of the term "semi-official publications".

M. LUCHAIRE said that the semi-official publications were the possession of institutions, which could exchange among themselves. The non-official ones came from private authors. It would be desirable if exchanges of the publications of private authors could also be made.

The CHAIRMAN proposed to the Committee first of all to discuss "semi-official publications", namely, publications of academies and learned institutions or universities. By what means should the exchange of these publications be encouraged?

Mr. HEADICAR, who was secretary of the Universities Library for Central Europe, explained what his work had been up to then in this association. His task had been to put the learned societies of the different countries in touch with those of Great Britain. All the national committees which would be established in the future should, therefore, receive, as well as the Universities Library, the information desired from abroad, and would be able to use it in a suitable way.

The CHAIRMAN thought that the experience of Mr. Headicar was valuable. In Finland, which was a country that had not adhered to the Conventions of 1886, the National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation was inclined to play this rôle of intermediary. He then asked: Was it desired that the exchange services should be entitled to initiate exchanges, or was it desired that they should limit themselves to transmitting exchange publications post-free

without taking any initiative? It seemed to the Chairman that this last interpretation of Article 7 would be unfortunate, but it was necessary to take a decision on this point.

Mr. HEADICAR thought that the initiative of the exchange services should be restricted. These should, before acting, wait for requests from abroad.

M. BACHA said that any restrictive stipulation of this kind would tend to the destruction of the exchange services. These should not be mere transmitting and forwarding bureaux. If all initiative were forbidden to them, they would have no object. It was necessary that each exchange service should draw up a list of national learned societies and their publications. The object to be attained should be that the exchange services, staffed by a competent staff, should be in a position to act, not merely as transmission bureaux, but as real bibliographical organs, whose function it was to furnish to anyone who needed it the information for which they asked. An exchange bureau ought to be a scientific organisation. An institution of the kind which Mr. Headicar represented would in Belgium duplicate the international exchange service.

M. Bacha asked Mr. Headicar if the association to which he belonged pursued its activities at its own cost, or at that of the State.

Mr. HEADICAR answered that his association received no government subsidy. It was able to pursue its activities thanks to voluntary subscriptions. The essentially charitable part of its work would, it was hoped, soon be unnecessary, but Mr. Headicar wished that the work of the Universities Library for Central Europe should be enlarged and directed to wider aims, such as might be contemplated if Great Britain adhered to the Conventions, and a service of international exchanges were organised there.

The CHAIRMAN said that, when Mr. Headicar had been invited to take part in the work of the Committee, it had been hoped that the institution of which he was secretary could form some sort of nucleus of the future service of British exchanges.

Mr. HEADICAR did not wish it to be believed that the association which he represented had the intention of substituting itself for any existing organisation, as, for instance, that which M. Bacha represented, but it might be contemplated that it should collaborate with the National Committee which would be founded in Great Britain.

M. LUCHAIRE was afraid that the discussion was becoming irrelevant. He wished to go back to the starting point, namely, the exchange of the publications of learned societies, academies or universities. Experience had shown that the exchanges were becoming more and more intense, and efforts should be made to increase them by all possible methods. In the Convention of 1886, this kind of exchange had only been admitted with reservations. Exchange bureaux were especially forbidden to make propaganda. The governments should, therefore, be urged in the rider to the Convention to encourage greater activity in the exchanges. When this point had been precisely defined, the question of the organisation of exchange bureaux would be discussed.

Mr. DORSEY spoke of the exchange office in the United States and of the function which it fulfilled. Notwithstanding the fact that the obligation imposed on it at present was only the transmission of publications, it had always in the past facilitated, and would continue to facilitate, exchanges to the fullest extent practicable. The adoption of a scheme carrying the obligation to initiate exchanges might have the consequence of adding duties to the bureau which were incompatible with its resources, and for which it had neither the staff nor the financial means. He believed it better, therefore, not to make the initiation of exchanges an absolute requirement.

M. BENEDETTI was of opinion that only the academies, learned societies, laboratories, etc., which had something definite to offer should make proposals. The exchanges between learned societies should be left to those learned societies themselves to settle, since they knew their own needs.

M. BARRAU-DIHIGO agreed with M. Benedetti. The learned bodies were well aware with what bodies they should carry out the exchanges. With regard to universities, it was well known that they did not possess such good information in this respect as learned societies, and that they were often ignorant of the works published by other universities. The reason for this was primarily to be sought in their history. Most of the learned societies were ancient institutions, and relations had existed between them for a very long period.

Mr. HEADICAR thought that this was not always the case. It frequently happened that neither did the learned bodies any more than universities know from what source to obtain information.

The CHAIRMAN said that in Central Europe intellectual life was in process of reorganisation. Learned societies were coming into being, and these had not yet established exchange relations with foreign countries in which they were still little known. According to the information which he had collected in Hungary, Czechoslovakia and Poland, it would be desirable to place no obstacle whatever in the way of any initiative which might be shown by the exchange services.

M. LUCHAIRE was of the opinion that it was difficult to conciliate the interests of groups of nations which, at the end of the war, found themselves in distress and the interests of more-

favoured nations. Should the result of this be that no definite decision should be taken, it would be advisable to make clear, by an additional article to the Convention, for the benefit of newly adhering States, that it was intended to promote the system of exchanges by every possible means.

Continuation of the discussion was adjourned to the next meeting.

THIRD MEETING.

Held on July 18th, 1924, at 10 a.m.

Chairman: M. de HALECKI.

Present: All the members of the Committee.

10. **Extension of the Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications; Semi-Official Publications; Lists** (*continuation of the discussion*).

The CHAIRMAN opened the discussion on the following text proposed by M. LUCHAIRE:

"Experience has shown that the exchange, as provided for in Article 7 of the Convention of 1886, of scientific and literary publications (whether subsidised or not by governments) published by academies and learned societies, by universities, and by scientific institutions, is of no less value than the exchange of actual official publications. On this point there would seem to be no necessity to modify the provisions of the aforesaid Article 7, which states that the exchange offices shall take no steps with a view to the establishment of relations of this kind. The States signatory to the present addition to the 1886 Convention undertake, however, to encourage the multiplication of such exchanges by all means in their power."

M. BACHA approved this proposed recommendation, but found it, nevertheless, somewhat platonic. With a view to stimulating the zeal of the scientific institutions, and encouraging them to increase their exchanges, they could be asked to indicate in their periodical publications the institutions with which they exchanged them. They could be asked also to show inside the cover what special terms they would be prepared to make for the exchange of their publications.

The CHAIRMAN thought that this proposal was a very interesting one, but observed that certain learned societies exchanged publications with so many societies that the list of the latter would cover several pages.

M. BARRAU-DIHIGO was of the opinion that it would be equally useful to ask the learned societies to print on the cover of the last annual number of their bulletin a complete list of the various publications of the society, whether recent or not. This information was often very difficult to obtain, and would be of great service.

Mr. DORSEY recognised the interest of the proposals which had been made, but they were, in his opinion, difficult to apply. The Smithsonian Institution could hardly print on the cover of its bulletin some 3,000 titles of publications.

M. BENEDETTI emphasised the difficulties of application of the proposal of M. Bacha.

The Accademia dei Lincei had more than 1,000 correspondents. Other academies, those of Naples, Turin, Milan, Venice, etc., also had a great number. It would hardly be possible to compile a complete list of the publications of all these learned societies, and he must draw attention to the conclusion reached in his memorandum (Annex 2), that was to say that these learned societies shall be left free to establish exchange relations, for they knew the needs of their institutions and the publications they wanted.

Mr. DORSEY asked if it would not be possible simply to recommend that each learned society should make known that its publications were devoted to such-and-such a subject, and that it would be glad to make exchanges.

Mr. HEADICAR reminded the Committee that the London School of Economics published a bulletin every three months which showed the new books secured for the library, the duplicate copies possessed, etc. Four hundred copies of this bulletin were printed, and there was an invitation to make exchanges. There had only been from fifteen to twenty requests for information.

M. BACHA suggested that the learned societies should be asked to indicate on the cover of their periodical publications the foreign organisations with which they had instituted an exchange, which were their most recent publications, and also where a complete list of these publications might be found. If the big reviews had too many exchanges, this was not the same in the case of the small reviews, and an endeavour should be made to start applying the principle where the least difficulty was to be encountered.

The CHAIRMAN drew attention to the linguistic difficulty, which limited the exchanges especially in Central and Eastern Europe. To solve this difficulty, the wish had been expressed that, in scientific reviews written in a language little known outside a country, each article should be accompanied by a summary in a language in everyday use. Thus, the Hungarian Government had decided only to grant subsidies to those learned societies which would publish such summaries in French, English or German. This wish might be taken into consideration by the Committee.

M. LUCHAIRE noticed that the various recommendations which had been under discussion referred to independent institutions, whereas the Committee was concerned with a Convention between States. Since the Committee had been led to make, outside the scope of the Convention, suggestions as useful as the Convention itself, it would, in his opinion, be advisable to make these suggestions separately to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. In this way the work of the Committee would be divided into two parts.

The CHAIRMAN agreed to this procedure.

After an exchange of views, the Committee asked M. Luchaire and Mr. Headicar to draw up a draft resolution regarding suggestions to be addressed to the learned societies; this draft would later be submitted to the Committee.

The resolution referring to semi-official literary and scientific publications was adopted subject to revision at the end of the work of the Committee.

II. Non-Official Publications: Draft Convention proposed by the Chairman.

The CHAIRMAN reminded the Committee of the opening speech of M. Bergson to the effect that if, after a thorough examination, no method were found of enlarging the basis on which the Conventions of Brussels had been concluded, this would be a very great disappointment for the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. The different statements which had been made by members of the Committee did not formulate any definite proposals on the subject of non-official publications. He had, therefore, drawn up a text to serve as a basis for the discussions of the Committee. It was a new draft Convention, similar to that which had been drawn up at Brussels for parliamentary publications. The necessity for a new text was very evident, because official publications were covered by Article 2 of the Conventions of Brussels and the publications of learned societies were covered by Article 7 of the same Conventions, whereas there was no article in the Conventions dealing with non-official publications. In his draft Convention he had endeavoured to limit the obligations falling to the charge of the States, but there was a minimum of charges which the States could impose upon themselves in a spirit of international co-operation. He had insisted upon the usefulness of the exchange of bibliographical publications. This was an idea which M. Bacha had developed in his report.

He opened the discussion on the following draft Convention:

Article 1. — Independently of the obligations which might result for each of them from the previous Conventions relative to the exchange of publications, the High Contracting Parties undertake to exchange, as soon as they are published, at least one copy: (a) of all publications of a bibliographical character which appear in their respective countries; (b) of documents of all kinds which give information regarding the new acquisitions of their libraries, and regarding the duplicate copies which these libraries have at their disposal for international exchange.

Article 2. — Each Contracting State agrees to take all measures which it considers desirable: (a) in order to make more easily accessible to all interested parties the lists communicated to it according to Article 1; (b) in order to secure a favourable consideration of all the proposals of exchange which might be addressed to it by other Contracting States regarding the scientific or literary publications included in the above-mentioned lists.

Article 3. — The States which have not taken part in the present Convention may adhere thereto on their request.

This adherence will be notified to the Secretariat of the League of Nations by the diplomatic channels and the other Signatory States will be notified by the Secretariat.

Article 4. — The present Convention will be ratified, and the ratifications will be deposited at the Secretariat of the League of Nations. It will enter into force as soon as ratified by . . . Governments, and remain in force so long as one of the Governments shall not have declared that it renounces it, having given six months' notice.

The Committee decided that the non-official publications should be the subject of a Convention, and it began the discussion on the articles of the draft Convention submitted by the Chairman.

Article 1. — The preamble was adopted.

Article 1 (a).

M. BENEDETTI reminded the Committee that the National Library of Florence had been publishing for the last 58 years "The Italian Bibliography" (he distributed a few copies to the members of the Committee). It appeared in a thousand copies, more than three hundred of which were circulated abroad gratis. Further, the National Library in Rome had been drawing up for the last fifty years a list of all foreign publications acquired by the Italian libraries. This list also was largely distributed, free of charge, at home and abroad.

M. BARRAU-DIHIGO proposed to replace the formula: "all publications of a bibliographical character which appear in their respective countries", by the following more precise formula, which left out special bibliographies: "all the current catalogues of the national bibliography".

Mr. HEADICAR observed that, if it was desirable that the Contracting Parties should exchange the indexes of the periodicals which appeared in their respective countries, this exchange would involve considerable expenditure for the United Kingdom.

Mr. DORSEY also insisted on the financial difficulties to which this proposed exchange gave rise.

The CHAIRMAN observed that the text did not take into consideration the index of periodicals, but only the national bibliographies, and the amendment proposed by M. Barrau-Dihigo, to which he agreed, expressly limited the exchanges to the current catalogues of the national bibliographies.

M. BACHA found the idea excellent in principle, but thought that he should make a practical reservation. It was rather unlikely that the governments would consent to assume the financial charges which would be consequent upon the adoption of the proposal. It would perhaps be possible to solve the problem in a slightly different way. The exchange bureaux would endeavour to collect all possible bibliographical information, and would become information bureaux which would be given the additional task of making the national bibliography known abroad. The budget of the exchange bureaux would include the credits devoted to the distribution of the national bibliography in foreign countries. The governments would not be requested to undertake the exchange of publications and catalogues. They would be asked to establish exchange bureaux, which would be, at the same time, information bureaux, and thus the object would be attained.

Mr. DORSEY observed that the purchase of the bibliographical indexes by the American exchange bureau to supply foreign bureaux would involve an expenditure of perhaps many thousand dollars.

Mr. HEADICAR asked that the text to be formulated should definitely exclude special bibliographies. It should be clearly established, for instance, that the British Government need only furnish the monthly supplements of the British Museum Library Catalogue.

The CHAIRMAN proposed to add to the formula proposed by M. Barrau-Dihigo the following words: "of a general character".

Mr. DORSEY pointed out that this formula might include the American copyright cards, of which the publication was very costly.

M. BACHA thought that the best method of solving the problem would be to interest the governments directly in centralising the bibliographical information, and distribute that information broadcast.

As it was difficult for the inhabitants of a country to keep abreast of the publications in that country, a great service would be rendered if the bibliographical information was centralised, and in exchange for this service the governments might be induced to undertake at their own expense the circulation of their national bibliography in foreign countries. In other words, the national interests must be associated with the interests of international co-operation.

On the proposal of the CHAIRMAN, *the Committee decided* to reserve the question of the organisation of exchange bureaux, referred to in the proposal of M. Bacha.

The CHAIRMAN pointed out that, if the words "current catalogues of a general character" were adopted, each State would be free to decide what catalogues were covered by this expression.

Mr. HEADICAR suggested that examples should be given in a table to be annexed. It could be said, for example, that in Great Britain the monthly supplements of the British Museum Library Catalogue constituted current catalogues of a general character.

The Committee approved the idea of preparing such a table.

With this reserve, Article 1 (a) was adopted in the following form:

"Of all current catalogues of national bibliography of a general character."

Article 1 (b).

M. BENEDETTI pointed out that duplicate copies of a publication in possession of libraries belonged to the State, and that in Italy it would be necessary to pass a special law in order that the libraries could dispose of these copies.

The CHAIRMAN explained that the point before the Meeting was only to find out what duplicate copies existed in libraries.

The SECRETARY added that the Vienna National Library, for example, published a list of duplicate copies and of new acquisitions.

M. LUCHAIRE thought that the publication of lists of duplicate copies was of limited importance if the question of exchanging them was not contemplated. This question could be made the subject of a general convention.

The exchange of bibliographical publications was of use, but other publications might be usefully exchanged in spite of the fact that it might not be possible to lay down a definite obligation in this respect. In order to broaden the basis of the Brussels Conventions in conformity with the wish expressed by M. Bergson in his opening speech, the Committee might ask States to set aside a reserve of non-official publications for the purpose of international exchange. With this object, he put forward the following text drafted by M. Barrau-Dihigo:

“States which have adhered, either without reserve or with reservations, to the Conventions of 1886 undertake to set aside a reserve of non-official publications for the purpose of international exchange, it being understood, on the one hand, that these publications should be of an indisputably scientific character, or works of a literary kind which could be considered as forming part of the intellectual output of the nation; and, on the other hand, that no State should be bound to furnish to its co-signatories of the Convention all the works which it has placed in the reserve contemplated by the present article.”

M. BACHA approved of the establishment of a reserve for exchange purposes. In order to put this scheme into practice, the Committee might pass a recommendation that all duplicate copies should be centralised in the national library, and should be used for the purpose of lending, exchange, or even as gifts. The reserve being thus constituted, it might constantly be increased by means of gifts from authors and publishers, who were directly interested in making their publications known.

After an exchange of views, *the Committee decided* that the proposal put forward by M. Luchaire and M. Barrau-Dihigo should form a separate Article which should constitute Article 3 of the draft Convention concerning non-official publications.

On the proposal of Mr. DORSEY, *the Committee decided* to insert at the beginning of Article 1 (b) the words “as far as possible”.

On the proposal of M. BACHA, *the Committee decided* to specify that the Article was concerned only with scientific libraries.

The Committee finally decided to delete in Article 1 (b) of the draft all mention of duplicate copies, dealt with in Article 3.

Thus amended, Article 1 (b) *was adopted* as follows:

“As far as possible of documents of all kinds which give information regarding the new acquisitions of their scientific libraries.”

It was understood that libraries and universities were not bound to draw up bibliographical lists, but were bound to communicate lists already in existence.

Article 2: Preamble.

The preamble *was adopted*.

Article 2 (a).

Adopted.

Article 2 (b).

Reserved until the drafting of the new Article 3 proposed by M. Luchaire.

Article 3.

Mr. DORSEY pointed out that, with regard to duplicate copies in the possession of libraries, the libraries would sustain a loss if they gave up their duplicate copies in order to form a reserve for the purposes of exchange. Further, duplicate copies would be preserved at less cost in libraries and universities than if a special place were appointed for their reception.

The CHAIRMAN pointed out that the National Library of Vienna proposed that duplicate copies should remain in the libraries and universities to which they belonged, but that a list of these duplicates should be prepared in order that their whereabouts should be known.

M. BACHA was of opinion that the duplicate copies could be centralised in the reserve to be created. Authors could send their publications to this reserve, and the list of duplicates in reserve would be kept up to date, whether the duplicate copies had been sent to the reserve or whether they remained in the libraries and universities to which they belonged.

Mr. HEADICAR pointed out that, with regard to the value of the duplicate copies, one book for which there was a need was of greater value than ten volumes for which there was no need. Libraries which had sufficient space could keep duplicate copies without inconvenience, provided that all information regarding these duplicates were centralised at some given place.

M. LUCHAIRE submitted a draft of Article 3 which he had prepared with the assistance of M. Barrau-Dihigo, and which took account of the discussion which had just taken place.

The draft was as follows:

"To facilitate generally the exchange of works most representative of each national culture, the High Contracting Parties shall constitute a reserve of non-official publications which are available for international exchange. They will publish from time to time a list of these works.

"This list will also give the name of works existing in duplicate in public libraries which may be exchanged."

The Committee postponed till the following meeting a discussion on this draft, and in principle agreed to maintain Article 2 (b).

Articles 4 and 5 (formerly 3 and 4).

After an exchange of views, on the proposal of M. LUCHAIRE, the Committee decided to consult the Legal Section of the Secretariat as to the form to be given to these articles, the text of which would be drawn up at the end of the meeting, when the Committee would examine all the proposals which it desired to submit to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

FOURTH MEETING.

Held on July 18th, 1924, at 3 p.m.

Chairman: M. O. de HALECKI.

Present: All members of the Committee.

12. Non-Official Publications: Draft Convention proposed by the Chairman; Additional Article by M. Luchaire.

The CHAIRMAN opened the discussion on the text proposed by M. Luchaire for addition to the draft Convention drafted by the Chairman himself. This text would form Article 3.

After amendments, Article 3 of the draft Convention was adopted by the Committee in the following terms:

"Article 3. — To facilitate generally the exchange of works which are the most important or most representative of the various types of national culture, the High Contracting Parties shall collect or catalogue the publications received by gift or otherwise which are available for international exchange. They will publish from time to time a list of these works.

"This list will also give the names of works existing in duplicate in libraries which may be exchanged."

13. Acquisition of Scientific Publications by National Bureaux : Proposal of Mr. Headicar.

On the proposal of the CHAIRMAN, the Committee examined Mr. Headicar's proposal concerning the question of the direct acquisition by the national bureau of publications and works of a scientific nature with a view to increasing their circulation abroad.

In reply to a question from M. BACHA, who expressed a fear that this form of activity of the exchange bureaux would be of such a kind as to injure the interests of publishers and booksellers, Mr. HEADICAR replied that the publishers themselves would be very happy to grant particularly favourable terms to the exchange offices. From the point of view of the retail bookseller, the system which he recommended possessed no dangers. The publisher should grant the same conditions to the exchange bureaux as he would to the big booksellers. The first to benefit would be not the publishers but the libraries themselves. Publishers could not but find advantage in

providing copies for the use of libraries which, by the publicity thus obtained, would hasten the circulation of the works they published.

M. BACHA proposed that the system contemplated by Mr. Headicar should be mentioned in the Committee's report on the Convention to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. He did not, however, desire that it should figure as a definite suggestion, since it appeared to him to be going too far to aim at imposing such a system.

Mr. HEADICAR desired to make it clear that what he was submitting to the Committee was not a suggestion pure and simple. It was the result of a practical experience already extending over two or three years. The system which he contemplated was that already used by the association which he represented.

M. LUCHAIRE emphasised the interest which lay in Mr. Headicar's proposal. It was an excellent means of inducing States to help each other to constitute important collections of foreign publications in their libraries. The Committee, however, must not forget that objections might arise, and he would be afraid if Mr. Headicar's proposal took the form of a definite obligation. Did Mr. Headicar desire the suggestion to be placed in the protocol which the Committee of Experts would propose to add to the Conventions, as a binding clause, or would Mr. Headicar be ready to agree that his proposal should be inserted in the form of a simple recommendation?

M. BENEDETTI observed that the purchase of books had become very expensive for countries with a depreciated exchange. In Italy, something similar to what had just been proposed by Mr. Headicar had been tried a few years ago, but no practical result had been achieved. He accordingly recommended that Mr. Headicar's proposal should be examined, in view of the fact that it was based on several years of practical experience, and that it might lighten the very heavy expenses resulting from the purchase of foreign books in the case of certain countries.

Mr. DORSEY said that, if the international bureaux found themselves obliged to adopt the method proposed by Mr. Headicar, they would be compelled to keep very full accounts involving an expenditure of labour and funds which they were not at present in a position to undertake. Furthermore, if such purchased books were transmitted free of postage under governmental frank (as would be in the case in America), other bookdealers would at once bring accusations of unfairness on the part of the government in allowing free transportation of the books of some dealers, while denying it to others.

Mr. HEADICAR emphasised the importance of allowing the exchange bureau to procure books at the cheapest rate. The trade in question, according to the admissions of those of its authorised representatives whom Mr. Headicar had consulted, would derive every benefit from such a system.

M. BENEDETTI observed that the purchase of books had become very expensive for countries with a depreciated exchange. In Italy something similar to what had just been proposed by Mr. Headicar had been tried a few years ago, but no practical result had been achieved. He accordingly recommended that Mr. Headicar's proposal should be examined in view of the fact that it was based on several years of practical experience, and that it might lighten the very heavy expenses resulting from the purchase of foreign books, in the case of certain countries.

Mr. DORSEY said that the exchange bureau of the United States had adhered to the letter of the Convention by excluding everything which might be construed as a commercial matter. To seek to broaden the scope of the Convention would, as he was in a position to state, result in raising those objections which he had just mentioned on behalf of persons commercially interested in the question. This had already occurred in the United States in regard to other similar cases, when trade publications had by mistake been included in shipments.

The CHAIRMAN proposed that the States should be left free to decide whose duty it was to make these purchases, whether it was the duty of the exchange bureau or an institution of the kind which Mr. Headicar represented. The objections which Mr. Dorsey feared would thus be removed.

Mr. HEADICAR said that the question of the intermediary was only secondary in importance so far as he was concerned. What he regarded as essential was the admission of the principle.

M. RODRIGUEZ supported the proposal of the Chairman. There was no exchange bureau in Latin America. Each country should be left entire freedom of action.

Though supporting Mr. Headicar's proposal, M. LUCHAIRE desired, nevertheless, to remind the Committee that this question was beyond its terms of reference. In his opinion, Mr. Headicar's proposal would be better placed among the recommendations which the Committee of Experts would put before the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. It was rash to introduce into the Convention a new obligation for the States which would be invited to sign it. In his opinion, it would be better, therefore, to insert Mr. Headicar's proposal as an annex to the series of recommendations which would be submitted by the Committee of Experts to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

This proposal was adopted.

14. Working of the Exchange Services.

The CHAIRMAN opened the discussion on point 1 of the agenda.

Mr. HEADICAR said that scientific publications too often reached research workers too late. It was certainly true that delays in transmission were inevitable. A first step towards improvement, therefore, would be to remedy this defect by organising a system of periodical despatch of these publications.

Mr. DORSEY was of opinion that, above all, two measures should be taken:

First: The Committee must draw the attention of the various countries to the necessity of providing sufficient credits for the use of the exchange bureaux in order that they should be able, through the improvement in their staff and in their resources, to carry out their duties more rapidly and more effectively.

Secondly: It was important to obtain the granting of free postage for the direct transmission of these publications to their destinations.

The CHAIRMAN said that the second proposal of Mr. Dorsey had been considered so important that it figured as the fourth item on the agenda. It would, therefore, be examined in detail when that item was under discussion.

The Chairman opened the discussion on Mr. Dorsey's first proposal.

M. BACHA put forward a preliminary solution: (1) Any provincial societies which sent their publications abroad should be allowed to enjoy, in their own country, the benefit of free postage. (2) The Exchange Bureaux must become bureaux for the purpose of direct transmission. (3) M. Bacha thought it was possible to effect a considerable improvement by the publication of an annual. Each year the exchange services would publish in the official journal of their countries a concise summary of their transactions and their method of work. The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, or a sub-committee acting under its instruction, would collect these summaries and compile an annual, accompanied by a critical introduction. In this way a kind of general control over the activities of the exchange services would be established. The control in question would have to be discreet but effective. A permanent committee could be appointed for the annual, and it could be composed of members of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and members of the exchange services. These persons would thus preserve their entire independence, since they would themselves make their report and the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would thus play an active part in the improvement of the exchange services.

The CHAIRMAN thought that, first of all, the Committee ought to adopt Mr. Dorsey's recommendation concerning increases in the credits which governments would be called upon to grant to exchange offices, since the improvement in their working depended on this increase in funds. The Committee would next examine M. Bacha's proposals regarding the method of the despatch of publications and the annual.

M. LUCHAIRE wondered whether the authors of the Convention of 1886 had not strong reasons for recommending a system of exchange *en bloc*.

M. BARRAU-DIHIGO replied that they had merely been influenced by motives of economy.

The CHAIRMAN declared himself in agreement with the second proposal of M. Bacha concerning the annual, and he thanked M. Benedetti for presenting statistical tables of the work of the Italian Office, which had been published for some years in the official bulletin of the Italian Ministry of Education.

M. BACHA added that it would, in his opinion, be useful to stimulate the proper pride of each exchange service by obliging them to furnish a report. Thus, while controlling by this means, which could be described as discreet, the working of the exchange services, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation could, in its critical introduction, put forward its desires. The directors of the exchange services would the more readily accept the comments and criticisms on their report, since they would be called upon in turn to sit on the Committee of the annual.

Mr. HEADICAR was of opinion that the compilation of the reports destined to form the annual ought to be made under the direction of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and for this purpose the creation of a central organisation seemed to him to be necessary.

M. BENEDETTI supported the recommendation for the creation of a central organisation for the supervision of the execution of the agreements to be concluded.

M. LUCHAIRE thought that it would be simpler to decide that the reports of the exchange services should be regularly forwarded to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and published under its auspices.

The SECRETARY was of opinion that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would be placed in a very delicate position if it were required, in its introduction to the annual, to risk criticising or blaming the activity of the exchange services.

M. BACHA replied that this would be done in the most courteous manner. Further, the comparison which each exchange service would be able to make between its report and the report of the other exchange services could not fail to shed a useful light on its own activities.

M. LUCHAIRE desired to make it quite clear that the organisations of the League of Nations could not intervene in any way in the affairs of organisations dependent on the various States. Nothing, it was true, prevented the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation from inserting in its general report any recommendations it desired. M. Bacha had proposed the publication of a special annual. Who would be entrusted with the duty of preparing it? In M. Luchaire's opinion, it would be very difficult to establish an international organisation for this purpose. Could an existing international organisation publish this annual? The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation could, very likely, assume this task, but it was impossible to count on obtaining an increase of credits for this purpose in the budget of the League of Nations.

M. Luchaire, therefore, proposed a practical solution. He thought that summaries of the reports of the exchange services should be published in the *Bulletin* of the International University Information Office, either in the body of the *Bulletin* itself or else as an annex.

The CHAIRMAN was of opinion that the solution proposed by M. Luchaire would meet with the agreement of all parties. Had the Committee any objection to adopting it?

Mr. HEADICAR asked whether it would be possible, in view of the fact that the reports of the various exchange services were to be published in the Bulletin of the International University Information Office that a sufficient number of copies of the report section should be available for each exchange service to be able to circulate them to participating institutions in its area.

M. BACHA hoped that it would be quite understood that, acting on instructions from their governments, the exchange services would publish each year in the official journal of their respective countries a report on their activities.

The CHAIRMAN noted M. Bacha's recommendation, and said that it would be inserted in the text which he had requested M. Luchaire to draft, and which would form Article 4 of the draft Convention.

FIFTH MEETING.

Held on July 19th, 1924, at 10 a.m.

Chairman: M. de HALECKI.

Present: All members of the Committee.

15. Article 4 of the Draft Convention proposed by the Chairman.

The CHAIRMAN opened the discussion on Article 4 of the draft Convention, which was as follows:

"The signatory States undertake to publish a report every year as to the operation of their exchange bureaux. These reports shall be forwarded to the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which will publish extracts from them, accompanied by a general report on the activities of the international exchanges during the same period."

M. BACHA asked if it would not be advisable to stipulate that the publication in question should take place in the official journal of the country at a date fixed in advance — for instance, in January, or, at all events, at the beginning of each year.

Mr. DORSEY observed that the governmental fiscal year in America differed from the calendar year and that the report published in the United States, therefore, referred to the year which began on July 1st and ended on June 30th, and appeared in December.

The SECRETARY asked in what form the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would publish the reports forwarded to it by the signatory States. The pamphlets in which the reports of those undertaking the enquiry would appear were very likely to be discontinued. On the other hand, each number of the *Bulletin* only contained about 50 pages. Even extracts from the reports published by the signatory States would take up too much room in the *Bulletin*. Did the Committee contemplate a special publication? It should also be observed that the publication of an annual report by the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation established a form of supervision over the application of the Convention. This was an innovation.

After an exchange of views, *the Committee decided* that extracts of the reports published by the Contracting Parties, and also the report of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which accompanied the extracts, could be published in supplements to the *Bulletin*, or could appear in the form of a special publication, in view of the fact that the suppression of the pamphlets hitherto devoted to the reports of those undertaking the enquiry would lead to an increase in the credits disposed of by the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for its other publications.

The Committee also decided that it was essential to supervise discreetly the application of the Convention, and, being of the opinion that the publication of a general report of the activities of the international exchanges would allow of such supervision and of contact being established between the Contracting Parties, *adopted unanimously* the text of Article 4.

16. Working of the Exchange Services.

The CHAIRMAN opened the discussion on the following recommendation drafted by M. Luchaire, and summing up the proposals by Mr. Dorsey and M. Bacha which could not form an article in the Convention:

"1. The Committee of Experts has noted that in many countries which were signatories to the Convention of 1886, and to an even greater extent in others, the working

of the exchange services is considerably hampered by the smallness of the funds allotted to these services. While realising that the burdens which State budgets at present have to bear make it impossible to increase these funds to any great extent, the Committee nevertheless expresses the hope that the services will be granted the sums they require in order to ensure the regular and rapid transmission of publications exchanged, and a satisfactory supervision of the consignments.

"2. In cases in which it is impossible to employ sufficiently high-grade officials for the exchange services, the Committee recommends the creation of a supervisory committee.

"3. The Committee thinks it would be desirable, with a view to speeding up the distribution of consignments, for the latter to be despatched direct to the recipients by the exchange service of the country of origin."

On the proposal of the CHAIRMAN, the Committee discussed one by one the three paragraphs of the draft referring to the three following points:

- (a) Increase of credits.
- (b) Establishment of supervisory committees.
- (c) Distribution of publications.

(a) *Increase of Available Credits.*

On the proposal of M. RODRIGUEZ, representative of the Latin-American Bureau of the Secretariat, *it was decided* to replace the expression "exchange bureaux" by the expression "exchange services", with a view to taking into consideration countries where there was no exchange bureau but where there was an exchange service.

On the proposal of Mr. DORSEY, *it was decided* to express the desire that "the necessary sums should be voted" by the contracting Powers.

(b) *Establishment of Supervisory Committees.*

The Committee, being of the opinion that it was essential to establish supervisory committees in countries which would not establish exchange bureaux, and would be satisfied with unofficial services, *approved* of the proposed text.

(c) *Distribution of Consignments.*

Mr. DORSEY observed that direct despatch to their destinations would involve the budget of the exchange services, especially that of the United States, in excessive expenditure.

The CHAIRMAN observed that the Committee limited itself to expressing a wish which would have practical application only in case of a considerable increase of credits.

On the proposal of M. BENEDETTI, *it was decided* to change the order of the paragraphs, and to insert that which referred to the distribution of consignments directly after the first paragraph referring to the request for sufficient credits.

The paragraph was adopted.

Mr. HEADICAR proposed to add a fourth paragraph, in which the Committee should express the hope that the Contracting Parties would endeavour to fulfil all the conditions of the Convention.

After an exchange of views, the fourth paragraph *was adopted* in the following form, proposed by the CHAIRMAN :

"The Meeting expresses the hope that the States which have accepted the 1886 Conventions without reservation will be willing to carry out all their provisions to the letter."

The suggestion with regard to the working of the exchange services *was adopted*, therefore, in the following form:

"The Committee of Experts has noted that, in many countries which were signatories to the Convention of 1886, and to an even greater extent in others, the working of the exchange services is considerably hampered by the smallness of the funds allotted to these services. While realising that the burdens which State budgets at present have to bear make it impossible to increase these funds to any great extent, the Committee nevertheless expresses the hope that the services will be granted the sums they require in order to ensure the regular and rapid transmission of publications exchanged and a satisfactory supervision of the consignments.

"The Committee thinks it would be desirable, with a view to speeding up the distribution of consignments, for the latter to be despatched direct to the recipients by the exchange service of the country of origin.

"In cases in which it is impossible to employ sufficiently high-grade officials for the exchange services, the Committee recommends the creation of a supervisory Committee.

"The Committee expresses the hope that States which have accepted the 1886 Conventions without reservation will be willing to carry out all their provisions to the letter."

17. **Free Postage.**

The CHAIRMAN observed that it was not possible to enter into details of the question in the absence of a representative of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union. He

submitted a draft resolution, which, after an exchange of views, *was adopted* in the following form:

"The Committee notes with satisfaction that a number of national exchange services enjoy the advantage of free postage within their respective countries, and hopes that all governments will see their way to extend this privilege to their exchange services and to publications sent to those services from within their respective countries.

"The Committee regards international free postage for exchange services as an essential condition of the full development of the organisation of exchange. It therefore requests the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to consult the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union as to the best method of obtaining free postage, and to recommend that method to the Council and Assembly of the League of Nations."

In the course of the discussion, Mr. HEADICAR insisted on the fact that international free postage was indispensable.

Mr. DORSEY, supported by M. BENEDETTI, asked if it was not necessary to specify that it was a question of the exchange of publications which were in no way of a commercial character, but the Committee was of the opinion that this was quite clear.

M. BENEDETTI gave the following information: In Italy, the exchange bureau had the privilege of free postage for correspondence and the despatch of parcels to all scientific and literary institutions of the kingdom.

With regard to other societies and private persons, their letters and parcels were also despatched free of charge under the stamp of the bureau. He observed that the State paid the postal charges and railway forwarding costs, and, as it was the same States which would receive the proceeds from letters and parcels of foreign origin, he thought that it ought not to be difficult to obtain the desired free postage, for the only question would be one of an adjustment of accounts, in which the States would have an evident, though perhaps a small, interest.

The CHAIRMAN stated in this connection that the question had been regulated in Italy, and that it was desirable that this should also be done in other countries.

18. Additional Protocol to the Brussels Convention of 1886.

The CHAIRMAN reminded the Committee that it had been decided that the Legal Section of the Secretariat should be consulted with regard to the editing of the final texts to be submitted to the governments for signature, and also with regard to the protocol clauses, which were to be used in the case of Conventions concluded under the auspices of the League.

He asked M. Niot, Member of the Legal Section of the Secretariat, to sit at the table of the Committee and read the following resolution proposed by M. Luchaire and adopted by the Committee on July 17th, 1924:

"States which have not yet adhered to the Convention of 1886, and which regard the obligation contained in Article 2 as imposing too heavy a burden, whether on account of the great number of their official publications or owing to their financial situation, or for any other reason, may adhere to the Convention subject to the reservation that they may, by agreement with any country, limit the number of publications sent thereto. Exchanges between such States and States which have adhered to the Convention without reservation shall be governed by the same principle."

M. NIOT drew attention to certain clauses which ought to be added to the text.

After an exchange of views, *the Committee adopted* the resolution in principle, it being understood that it should be edited by the Legal Section before being submitted to the Powers for signature in the form of an additional protocol of the Brussels Convention.

19. Draft Convention: the Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications.

The CHAIRMAN read the draft Convention.

M. NIOT proposed to add the customary clauses referring to the coming into force of the Convention to difference, which might arise between the Contracting Parties and to repudiation of the Convention.

The Committee adopted the second reading of the draft Convention.

It decided that the resolution referring to semi-official scientific and literary publications should form an article of this Convention, it being understood that the considerations which had given rise to the said resolution should figure in the report.

It also decided that the customary protocol clauses should be drafted by the Legal Section of the Secretariat.

20. Other Suggestions.

The CHAIRMAN reminded the Committee that in the course of the session several questions had been reserved. It was a matter of proposals submitted by various members of the Committee, especially with regard to the working of the exchange services.

After an exchange of views, *the Committee decided* to draw the attention of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to a certain number of suggestions, and asked M. Luchaire to draw up a list of them.

M. LUCHAIRE presented a text, *which was adopted*, after modifications, in the following form:

"The Committee of Experts, after considering the general problem of exchanges with a view to suggesting modifications to be made in the Conventions of 1886, finally reached certain conclusions on various points which cannot well be embodied in a draft international Convention. The Committee feels that it is its duty to communicate these conclusions to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, requesting it, if it adopts the Committee's suggestions on these points, to be good enough to recommend them to all concerned.

"The Committee thinks it would be desirable:

"1. That all institutions which exchange their publications should publish periodically a list of the institutions with which they exchange;

"2. That learned societies should publish on the cover of the last number in each year of each of their publications as complete a list as possible of these publications;

"3. That the publications of learned societies, if produced in a language other than the principal European languages which are most widely known, should contain summaries in one of these more widely known languages.

"4. That scientific periodicals should grant reductions in price, with a view to facilitating exchanges and subscriptions by libraries;

"5. That, in order to facilitate the acquisition of foreign books by libraries, as many agreements as possible should be concluded on the lines of that which the 'Universities Library for Central Europe' has concluded with the 'Amba' Institute at Vienna (see Annex 5 to the published report by M. de Reynold on the Conditions of Intellectual Life in Austria, A.62.1922.XII);

"6. That the libraries in which Governments deposit publications obtained by international exchange should be made readily accessible to all research workers."

21. Lending of Books.

M. BENEDETTI reminded the Committee that the lending of books had always been considered as a necessity in Italy. It had formerly been the subject of regulations, but these had necessarily been complicated by the intervention of several intermediaries, namely, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the country of the lender and in the country of the borrower. These regulations had subsequently been simplified, and direct lending from library to library had been instituted. There should be a return to this procedure.

M. BACHA informed the Committee that competent persons in Belgium did not approve of lending from library to library, because they considered that a book should not leave the library, where it should always remain at the disposal of the readers. An attempt should, therefore, be made to reconcile the interests of the readers on the spot and the interests of other readers. He had, therefore, been led to recommend the provision of duplicate copies by means of gifts or purchase. All libraries should have a reserve of duplicate copies for lending purposes.

Mr. HEADICAR was of the opinion that a lending system should be recommended. Such a recommendation would not be binding, and would be favourably received by many of the libraries which had adopted it already, or which were disposed to adopt it. The libraries which had duplicate copies should not hesitate to lend them, even to private persons, who were often disposed to pay fairly considerable sums to libraries for the loan of their books.

M. BARRAU-DIHIGO observed that this was an important and complex question. In his opinion, the Committee had not enough information to arrive at a decision on the point. The question of the lending of manuscripts had been regulated up to 1914 by a tacit agreement between the countries of Western Europe. All countries did not lend their manuscripts, but continuous relations had existed between France and, for instance, Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands and Sweden. When the loans were made through diplomatic channels, the manuscripts asked for were received in a period of two to three months. Certain countries, such as the Netherlands, refused to use the diplomatic channels, and requests were then directly addressed, for instance, to the Library of Leyden, which answered within a very short period; but, as the same procedure was not followed in the case of printed books, the paradoxical situation arose that it was easier to borrow a valuable manuscript than an ordinary book. Nevertheless, the lending of books was carried on regularly with Germany; it was sufficient to apply to a German library. At the present time, the need of a convention was becoming evident, for the purpose of avoiding certain abuses, monetary shortage and other difficulties; but, for the moment, in view of the lack of information, the Committee should confine itself to expressing a wish in general terms.

The Committee decided to draw the attention of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to the importance of this question by insisting on the importance of the lending of duplicate copies, and to invite it to entrust the Sub-Committee on Bibliography with the study of this question.

The CHAIRMAN proposed the following text, which was added as Part B to the list of recommendations drawn up by M. Luchaire:

"B. — The Committee was led to consider the problem of international loans of books.

"It immediately agreed to recommend that library duplicates should be utilised as far as possible for such loans.

"In view, however, of the importance and complexity of the problem, it has not been able to discuss the matter in all its aspects, and it requests the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to instruct the Sub-Committee on Bibliography to conduct a minute enquiry into the question of international loans of books and manuscripts."

22. **Consultation of Official Publications.**

Mr. HEADICAR proposed to the Committee that it should suggest that the official publications should, as far as possible, be placed in libraries to which the public had easy access, or in the libraries of societies, and not in the ministries, to which access was difficult, if not impossible.

M. BENEDETTI said that in Italy the official publications were not asked for in the big national libraries, and that, according to their nature, they were more appropriately in the various libraries of the ministries, in which they were very much required and most used, for they were there, at all events in Italy, easily accessible.

The Committee adopted the suggestion:

"That the libraries to which the Governments would send the official publications obtained by way of exchange should be of easy access."

This recommendation would become Point 6 of the recommendations drafted by M. Luchaire.

23. **Customs and Exchange Services.**

M. BENEDETTI proposed that, following the example of the United States of America, the chiefs of the Customs services in the various ports should be entrusted with the clearance and re-despatch to the exchange services of cases of books coming from abroad. In this way, much time and money would be economised.

The Committee decided to insert this recommendation in its report to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

24. **Report of the Committee to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.**

The Committee noted with pleasure that all its resolutions and recommendations had been unanimously adopted.

On a proposal of the CHAIRMAN, *the Committee decided* that its report and the texts should be addressed to the Sub-Committee on Bibliography, which had asked that the Committee of Experts should be summoned. A short summary would suffice. When the report of the texts adopted were submitted to the full Committee, the Chairman and M. Luchaire, experts of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, would furnish it with necessary information and explanations, and the duties of Rapporteur would be carried out by the Chairman.

It was also decided that if the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation agreed to the report and the texts adopted by the Committee, it should ask the Council to add to the Agenda of the fifth Assembly the conclusions of the Committee of Experts.

25. **Relations with Latin America.**

M. RODRIGUEZ, representative of the Latin-American Bureau of the Secretariat, suggested to the Committee that it should express the wish that the services of the Latin-American Bureau of the Secretariat should be employed to ensure contact with the States of Latin America.

The Committee decided to express its regret in its report to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation that Latin America had not been represented at the Conference.

The Committee thanked M. Rodriguez for his good services, and suggested that the services of the Latin-American Bureau of the Secretariat should be utilised to ensure contact with the States of Latin America.

26. **Close of the Meeting.**

The CHAIRMAN noticed that the results obtained had justified the hopes that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation had in the results of the Committee. Without altering existing conventions, the Committee had found a means to facilitate the adhesion of every State. It had drawn up a draft Convention for literary and scientific publications, and an agreement was in view on the subject of free postage. The Committee had also discussed several questions connected with the subject, as, for instance, the international loan of books, and thus prepared the way to future solutions. This result was due to the very high degree of competence of the experts and to their spirit of conciliation. He thanked the members of the Committee and the Secretariat.

M. BACHA and M. LUCHAIRE thanked the Chairman, in the name of their colleagues, for the goodwill and ability with which he had presided over the discussions.

ANNEXES

	Page
1. REORGANISATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE SERVICES. Report submitted by M. Eugène Bacha, Director of the Belgian Service of International Exchanges, Brussels.	26
2. THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE SERVICES. Report presented by M. Vittorio Benedetti, Head of the Italian Service.	28
3. REPORT by Mr. Harry Dorsey, Representative of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, U.S.A..	30
4. REPORT submitted by Mr. B. M. Headicar, Librarian, London School of Economics, Secretary of the Universities Library for Central Europe	32
5. THE EXTENSION OF THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS. Proposals submitted to the Committee of Experts by M. O. de Halecki, Professor at the University of Warsaw	33
6. TEXT OF THE CONVENTIONS OF 1886	36
7. Resolutions of the Committee of Experts	39

Annex 1.

REORGANISATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE SERVICES.

*Report submitted by M. Eugène Bacha,
Director of the Belgian Service of International Exchanges, Brussels.*

Brussels May 20th, 1924.

Hitherto, only impracticable suggestions have been made in regard to exchanges. It was first of all proposed that every State should draw up an inventory of its art treasures, should make numerous copies of the works of art in its museums and should exchange these copies for copies of foreign works of art. In this way, every country would be able to acquire a complete collection of the artistic creations of the world. This scheme was fantastic.

It was then proposed that every State should draw up an annual inventory of all matter printed within its territory and should send to every capital one copy of each work published in the country, so that in every country there should be constituted a complete collection of all publications throughout the world. This idea is equally fantastic, for it involves the formation of 77 world libraries.

Finally, it was proposed that each State should obtain a copy of every work printed in its territory and that all these copies should be sent to one central library, which would thus acquire a complete collection of all publications in the world. It was no longer proposed to create by a system of exchanges a separate library for every country: it was, however, suggested that a universal library should be founded by collective compulsory contributions. This scheme is as fantastic as the others. What intellectual workers require is not a universal library, a sort of more or less distant Mecca, but as large a number as possible of great libraries — national, university and academic libraries; libraries of ministries; libraries for specialists and libraries of learned societies — which will be well organised and well managed and which will, by a system of exchanges, be in a position to place at the disposal of research workers in all countries everything of general interest in the whole field of intellectual production.

With a view to enriching these numerous libraries, the suggestion was made, after many tentative efforts, in various directions, that each State should be asked to undertake to create an exchange bureau which would send abroad free of charge its official publications and the publications of its learned societies in exchange for publications of a similar kind. But this system of exchange was conceived on so vast a scale, and was so ambitious, that it did not succeed in obtaining universal approval. Only 17 out of 77 countries have signed the Brussels Convention of 1886. Sixty Governments have preferred to withhold their adhesion for reasons of economy. They were unwilling to undertake to send all their official publications to numerous correspondents or to create exchange bureaux and bear the cost of postage. Moreover, the bureaux which have been set up have not produced all the results expected. For reasons of economy, these bureaux have only made consignments in groups and from time to time, and the exchange of publications, which should have been rapid, has been greatly delayed.

The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation has undertaken to consider:

- (1) How all States may be induced to exchange the whole or part of their official publications;
- (2) How all scientific organisations interested in the same subjects may be induced to exchange their publications;
- (3) How existing or future exchange bureaux should be organised with a view to their rendering to intellectual co-operation the services expected of them.

With a view to the discussion of these questions, the Council of the League of Nations decided to convene a meeting of experts, which it has asked me to attend, in Geneva next July, and it has invited me to submit to the present meeting of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation (May 2nd, 1924) certain practical suggestions for the proposed reorganisation of the exchange services.

The following are the suggestions which I submit to my colleagues. Some refer to the exchange of official publications and others to the exchange of scientific publications.

I. EXCHANGE OF OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

The Convention of 1886 made it obligatory for the signatory States to exchange their official publications. This clause led to its failure. Governments were unwilling to assume such a burden. They should accordingly be invited to sign a new Convention, under the terms of which they would only *bind* themselves to exchange their *Official Gazette*.

This new Convention would provide for the exchange, if the Parties so desired, of some or all of their official publications, and might even make certain exchanges conditional on payment of a small charge. States would be free to conclude with other States such exchange agreements as they desired. Goodwill would take the place of obligation.

On the other hand, the States which signed the new Convention would undertake to publish, through their exchange bureaux, a list of their official publications. A pamphlet of a few pages would give: (1) an alphabetical list of government publications; (2) a specially-arranged table of these publications classified according to departments and official scientific institutions. It would take the form of a bibliographical index, that is to say, the nature of the publications would be clearly, carefully and fully defined. These lists of official publications would be sent free to all exchange bureaux, but in other cases they would have to be paid for. A fairly large number of copies would be printed for sale abroad to all great public libraries, university libraries, libraries of ministries and academies, commercial libraries, libraries of learned societies, and any persons interested. These lists would everywhere obtain a ready sale, because they would constitute indispensable bibliographical material. They would occupy an important place among works of reference, which are in such demand at the present time.

Thus, as regards the exchange of official publications, States would only *bind* themselves to exchange their *Official Gazette* and to publish an index, the sale of which would cover the costs of printing. States would be free to decide the terms on which their official publications would be exchanged.

2. EXCHANGE OF SCIENTIFIC PUBLICATIONS.

The object we have in view in attempting to reorganise the exchanges is to extend as far as possible the exchange of publications between learned societies and scientific institutions in various countries.

The Convention of 1886 laid down that the signatory States should ensure the forwarding, free of charge, of all scientific publications exchanged. Scientific societies were to get into touch with each other and despatch their publications free of cost through the medium of the exchange bureaux. The bureaux themselves were to take no active part in arranging these exchanges in the first instance. How can we now utilise such exchange bureaux to encourage and perfect the exchange of scientific publications? Obviously, no engagement on the part of a Government can oblige scientific bodies to exchange their publications. All that States can do is to provide facilities for such relations.

To this end, every State which signs the new Convention should undertake to publish through its exchange service a complete list of the scientific societies of the country, giving the headquarters of each society, the date of its foundation, the titles of its publications, and any general indexes of the latter which exist. This list would include: (1) an alphabetical list of the societies and the names of their publications; (2) an alphabetical list of these publications with the names of the societies which publish them; (3) an alphabetical table of the publications and societies arranged according to locality and subject-matter. This list would be compiled in each country by professional librarians. The cost of its publication would be borne by the exchange bureau, which would send one copy to every foreign bureau, but would place the remainder of the issue on sale, to cover the cost of printing. These lists would find many purchasers, as they would constitute valuable works of reference for libraries, university, academic, scientific, national, ministerial, and even municipal. In their preface, the attention of scientific societies would be drawn to the desirability of exchanging publications with other scientific societies, maintaining relations with these societies, and granting concessions in the matter of subscriptions if the value of one set of publications was not equal to that of another. Moreover, once these lists have been widely circulated, learned societies will find it very easy to establish contact with other societies; and in addition to existing exchanges, the number of which is all to the advantage of the various libraries, further exchange relations would be established, to the great advantage of intellectual workers.

In the meantime, each State signatory to the new Convention should undertake to forward the scientific publications of its own country through its exchange bureau as quickly as possible. Indeed, in order to avoid the present delays in the transmission of scientific publications — these being sent from bureau to bureau before they are delivered at their destination — it is important that national exchange bureau, should receive only the publications of their own country, for transmission abroad. They should no longer receive publications from abroad intended for distribution in their country. All the exchange bureaux should send their consignments, by post or by rail, direct to the addressee in the following manner: Scientific societies should send the copies of their publications to be exchanged, under wrapper and addressed to the exchange department. The latter would then merely stamp the copies and forward them to their destination after entering them in their books. Although this might, it is true, lead to an increase in the number of packets sent out by the exchange bureaux, the bureaux would no longer have to bear, as at present, the cost of distributing throughout the country consignments received from abroad. If the exchange bureaux ceased to be receiving-offices and became forwarding-offices only, this would not diminish their importance. On the contrary, the bureaux would be in a position to render far greater services to intellectual co-operation. By their registers (the entries in which would be classified according to the title of the journal, the addressee or the society), they might ascertain whether papers were being regularly despatched, might notify the senders

of any omissions, might deal with complaints from the addressees and might act as intermediary between the sender and the receiver. They might also furnish inquirers, quite as satisfactorily as at present, with information on the foreign periodicals sent to their country, since they would have the complete list of foreign societies receiving their own country's periodicals. As national periodicals would no longer pass through the exchange bureaux but would be sent direct, delay would be reduced to a minimum. Scientific organisations would benefit, as at present, by what would, in fact, amount to exemption from postal charges for the despatch of their publications, and might continue to enrich their libraries (that is to say, the scientific equipment of the country) by the acquisition of foreign periodicals free of charge.

The States signatories to the new Convention would be requested to invite their universities and scientific establishments to exchange with similar institutions abroad the theses, memoranda and works which such associations publish.

The States would also be requested to form in their national libraries a collection of *duplicates*, that is to say, works presented by their authors, to be lent, if necessary, to foreign libraries. In this way, a system of lending books might be organised between libraries which would not otherwise be able to send out books from their collections.

The exchange of purely bibliographical publications would be effected in the same manner: it would be the duty of each exchange bureau to obtain for its use, and place at the disposal of enquirers, a copy of the bibliographical publications of the country. It would purchase and send to each foreign exchange bureau one copy of these very special and, be it said, rather rare publications. There would thus be in every country an organisation for the collection of all purely bibliographical publications and every exchange bureau would become a well-equipped office for scientific information.

It would be desirable for each bureau to be acquainted with the organisation of the other bureaux, and for the bureaux to keep each other and the public informed of their recommendations, wishes, and statistics concerning the number of periodicals despatched.

A link of this nature might be formed if the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation were to publish a year-book entitled *The Year-Book of the International Exchange Services*, containing clear and concise reports, signed by the directors of the bureaux, on the work accomplished by each bureau, the number of periodicals despatched, new official publications, new bibliographical publications — in short, every kind of information concerning their practical and scientific organisation.

To summarise: With a view to building up the most comprehensive system of exchange possible, both of official publications between States and scientific publications between learned societies, I would propose that we should submit to the States for signature a new Convention under the terms of which they would undertake:

- (1) To exchange their *Official Gazette*, while reserving the right to subject the exchange of all other official publications to such conditions as they think fit.
- (2) To issue a list of their official publications and a list of their learned societies, the sale of which would be a source of income.
- (3) To send free of charge all scientific publications for abroad forwarded through the national exchange bureau.
- (4) To send these publications direct to the addressees in return for the economy realised as a result of their no longer having to distribute, within the country, the foreign publications (which would also be sent direct to the addressees).
- (5) To invite their universities, academies and official scientific establishments to exchange theses, memoranda and works with similar institutions abroad.
- (6) To invite their national libraries to establish a collection of *duplicates* presented by the authors, which might be sent on a reciprocal basis from library to library.
- (7) To send to every exchange bureau one copy of each purely bibliographical publication published in the country.
- (8) To make a grant to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation for the publication of a *Year-Book of the International Exchange Services*.

Annex 2.

THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE SERVICES.

Report presented by M. Vittorio Benedetti, Head of the Italian Service.

Rome, July 1st, 1924.

I have the honour to submit to you the following observations which are the result of twelve years' experience in the Italian Exchange Bureau. It is not my intention to lay proposals before you, but merely to put forward an Italian view based on the somewhat limited experience of the problem which we have had in this country.

The Conventions of 1886 provided for the compulsory exchange of official publications, while leaving the exchange of academic publications optional. In practice, not only compulsory but also optional exchanges have been carried out.

The burden which would be placed upon Governments if every publication were to be exchanged at the public expense would be very serious, and would not, moreover, lead to results sufficient to justify the outlay. These publications are not always sent to the offices or institutes to which they would naturally be the most useful, and, while it is very desirable that they should be included in Government institutes and in ministerial libraries, they are of very little use in public libraries, and take up room there which is urgently needed for other purposes.

If, therefore, it is desired to maintain Convention A of 1886 and to make official publications available for general use, they must either all be collected in a special establishment (which would not be very easy) or be distributed among public establishments of the same kind — this also would be difficult in practice.

These measures would be necessary in order to maintain Convention A: otherwise we might come back to the point of view expressed by Great Britain in 1877, that "an unlimited and indiscriminate exchange of all official publications did not seem to be opportune"; to which we might add: "for many of them are only of value to certain special establishments". In 1880, Great Britain reasserted this view and did not find it possible to accept Convention A unconditionally, although she expressed her readiness, within reasonable limits, to accede to requests for specific official publications, provided that other countries were willing to supply their own publications on the same subject. Again, we find in Annex 3 to the Enquiry into the Situation of Intellectual Work that "the British Government has now again replied that it cannot adhere to the Conventions as at present drafted". I see that the Swiss Committee on Intellectual Co-operation has expressed a similar view, and I fancy that all nations which have not up to now adhered to the Conventions of 1886 have been restrained by similar considerations.

Thus the principle governing the exchange of official publications (if they cannot all be collected in a special establishment) might be that of providing only that for which request is made; we should then be sure that the publications in question would be sent to libraries and government offices where they would be appreciated and where they would produce the maximum results with the minimum expense for the governments concerned.

ACADEMIC PUBLICATIONS.

The exchange of academic publications is regulated, as you are aware, by Article 7 of the Convention, and I do not think that any change is desirable. The exchange of scientific and literary works does not need to be specially regulated, for this system has in itself the force of expansion necessary for its development; for this reason, it has been carried out in practice, in addition to the compulsory exchange. Our physical, chemical, botanical and anthropological laboratories, as also our observatories, etc., will be glad to receive the publications of all similar institutions abroad, and they will do their best (more satisfactorily than our bureaux could do) to obtain those which interest them, and with which they are acquainted.

It is therefore the task of these institutions to establish the necessary relations, inasmuch as they know their own requirements and have something to offer in exchange, according to the equitable principle "do ut des", if not the too commercial one of "an eye for an eye".

Moreover, the same idea was developed by the Swiss delegate at the 1883 Conference, where, on behalf of the Federal Council, he expressed the desire "that the exchange between learned bodies should be left to those bodies themselves" — a view which was shared by the French delegate.

The idea of making in each country "a complete collection of the academic publications of the whole world" is an ideal — "perhaps an illusion", as M. Charmes, the French delegate, observed. It would certainly be difficult to realise, inasmuch as small learned bodies would have to be asked for an excessive number of copies of their publications (the number of States mentioned in Annex 2 to the Enquiry is over 80)¹ — which would more than outweigh the advantage offered to them of being able to send their publications abroad free of charge.

The same might be said of Government institutes. Each institute and office knows (and knows better than anyone else) which publications are of interest to it and which are the institutes, laboratories or offices with which it desires to exchange publications. It would meet the case if all our academies, Government institutes, learned bodies — including those privately founded — laboratories, etc., were informed that our exchange bureaux exist in order to help them and to enable them to establish exchange relations with similar institutions throughout the world, and if all literary and scientific institutes, as well as all students throughout the world, as proposed by the Bibliographical Conference of 1908, and by the Public Records Congress of 1919, were recommended in the new Convention and by the League of Nations itself to give each other every assistance with a view to encouraging the "increase and diffusion of knowledge among men" by which alone mankind can achieve its high destiny. "We have more than 350 associations in France" (see page 13 of the Enquiry)¹ "which could thus send out their publications free of charge (through our bureaux) and receive others in exchange". The same would apply to other countries.

We should then have to return to the idea of free contracts between institutions of all kinds in different countries, entrusting to our bureaux the task of encouraging in every way exchanges among those who desire them, and of *making arrangements for the rapid despatch of the publications in question.*

¹ Brochure No. 3 bis of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation: « Les Echanges internationaux de Publications », by O. de Halecki.

Article 7 would then be the only essential part of Convention A which would remain in force. "The Exchange Bureaux will act as semi-official (or official) intermediaries between literary and scientific societies", to which might be added "and Government institutions of *all kinds*".

Convention B may remain unchanged (without reference to our bureaux) in the case of those countries which recognise the advantage of exchanging directly (as and when they are published) their Official Journals and Parliamentary publications.

The solution put forward in these pages may appear to involve excessive simplification, but if we consider the long and heavy work which these Conventions have occasioned for those who have sought to give effect to the idea expressed by George Washington on leaving office — "Promote then institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge" — and adopted by James Smithson, we may be led to think that the right road has not yet been found. After the death of Smithson, in 1829, the United States Congress discussed at great length the possibility of giving effect to Washington's idea, and finally entrusted the realisation of his wishes to a special commission, which, after long discussion, decided in 1849 on the creation of the Smithsonian Institute. Twenty years, however, had gone by.

In Europe, the ideas of Wattemar, which took shape in 1835, only gave him a personal success, and on his death in 1864 no engagement had been entered into by the various Governments; the idea had an inherent defect — it was too comprehensive and consequently too difficult to put into practice.

It was not until 1867 that the first Convention — known as the Princes' Convention — for the exchange of artistic productions was drawn up. In that year, the idea of an exchange of official documents was also brought forward, thanks to the initiative of the United States, whose efforts were soon seconded by those of that enterprising country, Belgium. Great Britain adhered in the same year to the scheme for the exchange of official publications, but soon realised that the indiscriminate exchange of publications was not the most satisfactory arrangement. In 1871, Belgium enlarged the scope of the Princes' Convention and appointed a commission to organise exchanges of artistic, scientific and literary works and reproductions of monuments, works of art, etc. The Paris Convention of 1875 further extended the scheme, especially as regards cartographic and geographical publications. In 1876, France entrusted her commission with the still wider task of undertaking research work, of giving assistance and of making investigations in the interests of the Commissions of other countries. In 1878, Italy, inspired by France's large enterprise, made arrangements to collect official publications and those of academies and learned bodies, coins, works of art, antiques, natural-history specimens, etc. She soon realised, however, that it was a matter of great difficulty to regulate so vast an undertaking.

In 1880, the field of action was limited in the draft scheme brought up for discussion at Brussels; it emerged from the Conference in a still more restricted form, and was again reduced in scope at the Conferences of 1883. In the Convention of 1886 there remained only the official publications referred to in Article 2, and it must be admitted that even this Article has not been very extensively applied.

My personal feeling is that the scheme should be limited still further, and, in fact, should only apply to what is wanted and asked for — that what is not asked for should not be given. I think we should return to the idea put forward long ago by the French delegate, which received the support of the United States and was adopted at the Brussels Conference of 1885, to the effect that "the obligation and not the exchangeable material should be restricted". The burden imposed upon governments would be lighter and the results would be more satisfactory; there would no longer be any reason for Great Powers (Great Britain, Germany, etc.) to remain outside the Convention, and all the other States which recently declared that they could not accept the Conventions of 1886 for reasons of a financial order (see "Enquiry" Annex 3)¹ would no longer be justified in adopting this attitude. The position would be very much what it is as regards education: there is no longer any question to-day of imposing formal obligations, but rather of helping and of giving an opportunity to men of goodwill to carry out their ideas.

As I have already had the honour to point out, however, these observations are merely an expression of the views of the Italian Bureau.

Annex 3.

REPORT BY MR. HARRY DORSEY,

Representative of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington.

Geneva, July 15th, 1924.

I have examined the different suggestions which have been made by the members of the Committee for improvement in the international exchange of publications and realise that the attainment of many of them would be highly desirable.

¹ Brochure No. 3 *bis* of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation: « Les Echanges internationaux de Publications », by O. de Halecki.

The Smithsonian Institution has been deeply interested in this subject since its foundation and initiated an international exchange service about 1850 that has gradually developed until between 500,000 and 600,000 pounds in weight of publications now annually pass through its hands.

As the representative of this Institution, I beg to suggest a few practical points relating to this subject which, at least from the point of view of the American Bureau, may be worthy of the consideration of the Committee.

1. The present treaties would seem to be sufficiently broad to permit the work of international exchanges to be carried on effectually. The principal reason for the inefficient functioning of the exchange bureaux is the lack of provision of adequate funds by the respective governments to enable them properly and promptly to discharge their duties.

Owing to the present high tax rate, the American Government is retrenching in its appropriation of funds, wherever possible, and it is believed that, were the present treaties nullified, there might be grave danger for the ratification of new treaties, and, particularly, should they possibly involve additional expense, which some of the proposals made might entail. Attempts have been made for the past two years to diminish the annual appropriation for the American service; these attempts have only been prevented with great difficulty.

The printing of lists of all official publications by each government is an urgent need. Although the publication of such lists is required by the present treaties, this has not been generally done. A list of the American official documents is printed each month by the printing office of the government. Classified lists are also issued from time to time and distributed to other countries by the Exchange Bureau.

2. Although the limitation of the automatic exchange to certain selected publications, rather than the full sets, as contemplated by the present treaty, may be desirable, as the latter may deter some countries from adhering to the treaty in its present form, this would not seem to be an insuperable obstacle to the development of international exchange relations. France may be cited as a notable example. While France has never signed the treaty, she has, nevertheless, established a bureau and is carrying on effectually international exchange relations.

3. The provision of sufficient funds by the governments is the most fundamental need in the development of the exchange of scientific and literary publications. Sufficient funds would mean more prompt and effective service, which in turn would attract other institutions and individuals to use this means of communication. It would enable the bureaux also to take measures to make better known the facilities of the exchange service.

The American Exchange Bureau conducted by the Smithsonian Institution is used very generally by learned institutions and individuals in that country, but it would be used to a much greater extent were it not for the considerable delays frequently incident to the delivery of packages in the case of some countries.

The Institution has not the means or facilities at present to provide for the collection of duplicate publications, from which to supply future demands.

The American Exchange Bureau is not organised to undertake regular bibliographical work and its funds are insufficient to provide for the publication of lists of unofficial scientific and educational establishments, with their classified bibliographies. It would be impracticable to obtain additional funds for the Exchange Bureau to undertake this bibliographical work, since the Congress already makes an annual grant for the regional bureau for the United States of the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature, which, in part, covers this field.

(In passing, I venture, to bring to the attention of the Committee, in view of its known policy of utilising all existing agencies for intellectual co-operation, that there are now stored in the Central Bureau of the Catalogue in London 250,000 reference cards to the literature of 1915, which, by assembling, might be made available to students, who could then obtain, at small cost, photostatic copies of the references to any given subject.

There are also held in the regional bureaux in the various countries index cards for perhaps 2,000,000 references to the scientific literature of 1916-1924.

These might be forwarded to London and all might be assembled and made available for reference at a small expense for the salaries, etc., of the two or three persons necessary.

This would also serve to keep active the regional bureaux, which are maintained at the expense of the respective countries, until some plan for the resumption of the publication of an index to scientific literature can be worked out, and would save this international organisation, which has already received the official recognition and support of many countries, and which, once lost, it would be extremely difficult again to secure.)

4. The securing of the international postal frank for the transmission of international exchanges of publications directly to the recipients by mail would be one of the most effective of all agencies in the development of such exchanges.

CONCLUSIONS.

That the time is opportune to attempt the ratification of new treaties for international exchanges and that the present treaties are sufficiently broad, if fully carried out.

That the Committee recommends that the attention of the various countries which have adhered to the treaty be drawn to the importance of a full compliance with its terms, particularly the article requiring the publication and exchange of lists of official publications.

That the signatory countries be urged to provide adequate financial support to enable the exchange bureaux to function effectually and promptly.

That the Committee considers the utilisation for reference purposes of the 250,000 reference cards to scientific literature of 1915, now stored at the Central Bureau of the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature in London, and the index cards for approximately 2,000,000 references to the literature of 1916-1924, now in the hands of the regional bureaux in the various countries throughout the world, as a partial substitute for the proposal that the various exchange bureaux issue classified bibliographies of the learned societies and establishments in the several countries.

That the Committee recommends that an effort be made to secure through the influence of the League the granting of an international postal frank for the forwarding of publications sent strictly as donations or exchanges.

Annex 4.

REPORT SUBMITTED BY MR. B. M. HEADICAR, LIBRARIAN,
LONDON SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS, SECRETARY OF THE UNIVERSITIES LIBRARY
FOR CENTRAL EUROPE.

London, July 3rd, 1924.

I have read with very great interest the various proposals submitted by M. de Halecki, M. Bacha and others. I am in considerable agreement with them on many matters, but, speaking as a librarian of more than thirty-five years' standing, at present in control of a library of 700,000 volumes, of which at least one-third are official documents, and partly as a result of my work in connection with the Universities Library for Central Europe, with a greater experience than most librarians of the exchange of publications on a large scale, I venture to suggest that the following points deserve the serious consideration of the Committee. If agreed upon, they would go a very long way to meet some of the urgent needs of international intellectual co-operation.

In the first place, one of the most urgent necessities is an undertaking by each country to supply a monthly list of its parliamentary and official documents. Apart from the United States and the United Kingdom, no country appears systematically to issue such a list and the crying need, as shown by my experience, is to be able to know what publications have been issued.

Secondly, scientific societies should be prevailed upon, if possible, to send to any bureau which may be established in its country for the purpose of international exchange a notification of any transactions, proceedings, monographs or papers issued under its auspices immediately on publication. This ought not to be a difficult matter, and each national bureau should, in turn, send to the bureau in each other country a monthly list of such publications. I consider both these matters to be of the very highest importance.

Thirdly, I would emphasise the desirability of establishing mutual relations for the purchase of books issued in different countries on the lines of the agreement drawn up between my society and "Amba" in Vienna, already noted in full in one of the reports of your Committee, a process not involving sending any money and frequent settlement of accounts. A similar arrangement has just been entered into between the School of Economics and the University of Heidelberg.

Fourthly, the establishment of a national clearing-house and loan collection of duplicates in each country is an urgent need. The uses of such a clearing-house are obvious, but specially I would emphasise the possibility of loaning works to individual professors, scientists and writers the world over, attached to any co-operating institution, free of charge, and to other individuals for small payments. I believe this latter arrangement would eventually produce a considerable sum in fees for borrowing. It might even become a self-supporting department. The other great benefit of such a clearing-house would be its possibilities as a source of supply in replacing the stocks of any library destroyed or lost as the result of earthquake, fire or tempest.

Although Professor de Halecki considers that the coming meeting would not be able, on the grounds of lack of time, to deal with this question of loan, I personally am of the opinion that such an arrangement is one of the first essentials of any scheme of intellectual co-operation. As far as this country is concerned, I have good grounds for believing that the School of Economics (no other is in any way so appropriate) would be perfectly willing that such a bureau as I have suggested above for various purposes should be established here. The matter of expense should not be a very considerable one. Although it might be assumed that some of the matters I have mentioned might be carried out by voluntary agreement, it is perfectly clear to my mind that nothing really substantial can be accomplished except by the direct interest and support of the League of Nations and of the Powers.

Annex 5.

THE EXTENSION OF THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS.

Proposals submitted to the Committee of Experts by M. O. de Halecki, Professor at the University of Warsaw.

Warsaw, June 6th, 1924.

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

The suggestions which I have the honour to submit to the Committee were inspired, in the first instance, by the present needs of countries of Central Europe and by the recommendations passed by the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation in these countries.

Shortly before putting these remarks into their final form, I was fortunate enough to see the report of M. E. Bacha, Director of the Belgian Service of International Exchanges (see above), as well as memoranda which the Austrian, Finnish and Czechoslovak National Committees have been good enough to communicate to me.

I. MAINTENANCE OF EXISTING CONVENTIONS.

Although it is quite clear that the existing organisation of exchanges requires improvement, we think it would be better to leave the Conventions of 1886¹ intact. It is true that only nineteen States have adhered to them, but many other States participate semi-officially in the exchanges which they established. Five of the Central European States (Albania, Hungary, Poland, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, and Czechoslovakia) have adhered, Roumania is about to adhere, and Austria regards these Conventions as forming an adequate basis for the organisation of exchanges. Finland and Lithuania are also considering the question of adhesion, while Bulgaria is only prevented from adhering forthwith by her present financial situation. The probability is, therefore, that the majority of these States would not welcome a recommendation advocating the entire abandonment of the Conventions of 1886. Indeed, the Czechoslovak Exchange Service points out very clearly that it would be far more useful to ensure the integral execution of the present provisions of these treaties than to amend their text. It would, moreover, be a delicate matter to suggest amendments of this kind at a conference at which many countries that signed the Conventions of 1886 would not be represented, particularly in view of the fact that three of these countries adhered to the Conventions after having been expressly invited to do so, in 1922, by the Council of the League of Nations, in pursuance of a recommendation by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. Finally, we think it would be dangerous to encourage a State to

¹ A special Convention concluded in 1891 between France and Belgium is practically identical with the General Convention of 1886.

abandon the existing Conventions without any assurance that it would agree to a new convention recommended by the League of Nations.

We have ventured to stress this point because we consider that the various reforms contemplated by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation might be carried out, even if existing Conventions were maintained. This we shall now try to demonstrate.

2. THE CREATION OF AN ORGAN OF LIAISON BETWEEN THE NATIONAL SERVICES.

It has long been noticed that the way in which the Conventions of 1886 are applied and the working of the exchange services themselves leave much to be desired, because the Conventions did not set up any central international organisation for ensuring permanent contact between the various national bureaux. M. Bacha proposes that such contact shall be established by means of an *International Exchange Service Year-Book*. We entirely concur with this proposal, which we think meets an urgent need, but we regard it as a minimum.

It is the fact that almost all international organisations, set up by general conventions such as those of 1886, possess a central office and an international committee to supervise the application of the convention and the technical improvement of its methods. In the case of the exchange of publications, the need for a central organ is emphasised by the fact that several articles of the Brussels Convention have, up to the present, remained a dead letter (*e.g.* the whole of Article 3, which is only carried out by the United States and Czechoslovakia); this article binds the Contracting States to print a list of publications available for exchange and to bring this list up to date every year. Moreover, such important technical questions as quick despatch should be discussed at regular intervals.

The reform which we have in mind would be easy to carry out because it would not involve the creation of new institutions. The work of the central bureau might be carried out either by one of the national exchange offices or else by the Secretariat of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation¹, which would, in any case, have to undertake such duties if it were entrusted with the publication of the Year-Book. The International Committee would be composed of a limited number of directors of Exchange Services (chosen periodically and in rotation by all their colleagues) and would also include representatives of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. The work of the bureau and the powers and duties of the Committee might be defined in a regulation attached to the Convention. It is obvious that considerations of expenditure may prove an obstacle to the whole scheme. We should therefore consider whether it would be easier to allocate a sum, however small, for this particular purpose in the ordinary budget of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, or whether it would be better to obtain special contributions from the Exchange Services — in other words, the States which have signed the Convention. The largest item of expenditure would, in any case, be the cost of printing the Year-Book, as the International Committee could carry on its general work by correspondence.

3. EXEMPTION FROM POSTAL CHARGES.

The financial difficulties which limit the action of all exchange services are principally caused by postal charges. Consignments might be larger and despatched with greater frequency were it possible to obtain for these services (including their correspondence as well as the cases and packages despatched) complete exemption from postal charges, or at any rate a considerable reduction on the ordinary tariff. It is not necessary for me to dwell on the capital importance of this question, which has been discussed on more than one occasion by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. As, however, a variety of opinions have been expressed regarding the possibility of such reform, we would point out that the countries of Central Europe (in particular, Austria, Hungary, Poland and Czechoslovakia) regard the question as of particular importance and consider that steps should be taken to obtain this result. Obviously, we have to distinguish between the exemption from inland postage dues in each country — such as the exemption granted in Austria on library consignments — and the exemption from international postal charges. The former might be made the subject of a resolution or recommendation of the Committee. As regards the latter, however, which is naturally a far more important question and might eventually absorb the other problem, it would be extremely desirable for the present Committee to obtain information from a representative of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union. Otherwise, the discussion of the problem would necessarily be vague. We therefore venture to suggest that a delegate of the Bureau should be invited to the meeting at which the question of exemption from postal charges is to be examined by the Committee of experts.

4. THE POSSIBILITY OF ADHERING TO THE CONVENTION WITHOUT RESERVATIONS.

It has been noted on many occasions that international exchanges can never be really satisfactory until all the civilised countries of the world participate in them. The reforms proposed above (Nos. 2 and 3) will perhaps encourage certain States to adhere to the Conventions of 1886, but it is still possible that, in spite of these improvements, many countries — including those whose

¹ As is the case with the International University Information Office.

output is of the greatest value — will hesitate to undertake obligations so far-reaching as those provided for in the Brussels Convention in regard to official publications. It is precisely for this reason that it has been suggested that the Convention should be replaced by an entirely fresh agreement.

We have already (see No. 1) pointed out that this method appears to be fraught with difficulty, even with danger, and we would now venture to suggest that the desired result could be achieved in a simpler way. All that is needed is to permit adhesion with reservations. These reservations would apply only to Article 2 of the Convention, which contains the undertaking for the automatic exchange of all official publications with all the Contracting States.

The reservation which we suggest would contain the following provisions:

(1) It would limit the general obligation regarding exchanges to the despatch of one copy each of the more important official publications; this copy would be sent to the central library of each Contracting State;

(2) It would indicate the maximum value up to which the State adhering in this limited manner would be willing to exchange other official publications with States which so desired (see reply of the British Government to the appeal of the Council of the League of Nations);

(3) It would, in that case, lay down the rules for estimating the values of the publications exchanged, as is done in the special Convention concluded between Austria and Russia.

A draft text of this restrictive clause might be drawn up by the Committee of Experts and submitted to the Legal Section of the Secretariat of the League of Nations for examination. Then, if the present signatories of the Convention were prepared to consent to adhesions with such reservations, a fresh invitation, which would probably produce better results, might be sent by the Council to the States which still hold aloof from this international organisation.

5. ADDITIONAL PROTOCOL OR SUPPLEMENTARY CONVENTION FOR THE EXCHANGE OF NON-OFFICIAL SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY PUBLICATIONS.

It is common knowledge that there are certain countries which consider that the Agreements of 1886 do not go far enough, especially as regards non-official scientific and literary publications. Now, it is precisely the exchange of such publications which most interests the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Some reform in this direction would, in the opinion of the countries of Central Europe, be very desirable, and would also be in accordance with the resolution adopted by the fourth Assembly of the League of Nations.

In this case, also, we think it would be preferable to leave the present Convention as it stands in spite of the obvious inadequacy of its Article 7¹. Again our object might be attained by adding to the Convention a supplementary text, either in the form of an additional protocol or of an auxiliary Convention, such as that concluded in 1886 for the immediate exchange of parliamentary documents. It goes without saying that this supplementary text might be signed not only by States accepting the obligations of 1886 in their entirety but also by States which have limited their obligations under the reservations referred to above (see No. 4).

It should be pointed out that certain countries would like this supplementary text to introduce the principle of the obligatory exchange of all scientific publications between the Contracting Parties. The Polish National Committee has recently again confirmed the resolutions which it had previously adopted on this subject, and we have reason to believe that the Polish Government would be prepared to go very far in this direction. Such a proposal would be in conformity with the objects which it was sought to attain by the Conventions of 1886, and also with the scheme submitted by the Chairman of the International Committee, which aimed at creating a number of central libraries in which the scientific publications of all countries could be collected under a compulsory international system.

In spite of the difficulties which would militate against the acceptance of such an obligation by all States, it still appears desirable to draw up a draft supplementary convention, as suggested above. It would indicate the lines along which we should seek to progress in the future, and it could be employed at once as a basis for special conventions under which two or more States would undertake to exchange all their scientific and literary publications.

Since, however, it is unlikely that a general agreement could be reached on so wide a basis, we would suggest that another text of a less ambitious character should be drawn up and annexed to the Conventions of 1886; this text would — if signed by a large number of States — facilitate and encourage the exchange of non-official publications.

The text in question should embody, first of all, an undertaking to exchange bibliographical publications immediately they appear. We are in entire agreement with M. Bacha on this point and we also agree with him that an undertaking to publish and exchange an index of learned societies and their publications should accompany the undertaking (to which unfortunately effect has not hitherto been given) to publish and exchange indexes of official publications (Article 3 of the Convention of 1886).

We should be inclined, however, to go still further: the article in the present Convention which refers to lists of official publications adds that the publications in view are those which

¹ If it is eventually decided to modify the existing text as we would suggest, a first amendment that the second paragraph of the article should be omitted. The Czechoslovak memorandum rightly lays stress on this point. It is also desirable that the exchange services should transmit scientific and literary publications which are not published by learned societies.

each State "could place at the disposal" of the other States. It would be useful if each State, when communicating to the other States its lists of non-official publications, could find some way of indicating the publications and the number of each which would be available for the international exchange.¹ We are taking as our model in this case the Vienna National Library, which, in the periodical catalogue of its new acquisitions, indicates by a special mark the books and periodicals of which it possesses duplicates and which it would therefore be prepared to exchange. Naturally, the number of such duplicates is never sufficient to allow of exchange with all countries, but in practice they are sent out in the order of the requests received until the supply is exhausted. This system of announcing duplicates is all the more valuable in that it applies, not only to periodical and other publications of learned societies, but also to books received by the libraries under the compulsory deposit system, and to all books out of print, which are so often required by new libraries. The National Latvian Committee has also noted that the compulsory deposit system enables it to utilise for international exchanges a certain number of all the works published in Latvia, and the Polish Committee has decided to set up a central depot of publications which can be utilised for exchanges with foreign countries. In the case of publications in less-known languages, it would be as well to indicate those which contain an epitome of the subject-matter in another language.

Our conclusions are as follows: While it may be impossible, at present, to introduce a compulsory exchange of all scientific and literary publications, we must at any rate agree upon some form of undertaking which would bind all the signatories to exchange, with as little delay as possible, all information concerning works in their respective countries, stating which of these publications are available for international exchange. This exchange of information would undoubtedly lead to numerous requests and proposals for exchanges, provided the exchange services, which would centralise all the material exchanged, work in close touch with all the learned institutions and societies concerned and, above all, with the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation.

We consider M. Bacha's proposal concerning the method of transmitting publications (direct transmission to the consignee by the exchange service of the country of origin) to be very sound, — all the more so as it would introduce a procedure half-way between the system at present adopted by the exchange services and that of direct transmission from society to society; the latter method is, in view of the delays occasioned by the present official system, preferred by the learned societies of certain countries, as has been pointed out, for example, by the National Finnish Committee.

We have not, in this report, touched upon the question of the international loan of books and manuscripts — which is an indispensable adjunct to a system of exchange — because, in all probability, the present Committee will not have time to consider this very complex question. We would merely wish to express the opinion that this question should form the subject of a special convention quite distinct from the convention or conventions concerning exchanges.

Annex 6.

I.

CONVENTION FOR THE INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE OF OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY PUBLICATIONS.

Concluded at Brussels, March 15th, 1886.

THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, HIS MAJESTY THE KING OF THE BELGIANS, HIS MAJESTY THE EMPEROR OF BRAZIL, HER MAJESTY THE QUEEN REGENT OF SPAIN, HIS MAJESTY THE KING OF ITALY, HIS MAJESTY THE KING OF PORTUGAL AND OF THE ALGARVES, HIS MAJESTY THE KING OF SERBIA, THE FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE SWISS CONFEDERATION:

Desiring to establish, on the bases adopted by the Conference which met at Brussels from the 10th to the 14th April, 1883, a system of international exchanges of the official documents and of the scientific and literary publications of their respective States, have appointed for their Plenipotentiaries, to wit:

The President of the United States of America:

Mr. LAMBERT TREE, Minister Resident of the United States of America at Brussels;

¹ The latter point was given special attention in a report by Professeur Susta, member of the Czechoslovak National Committee. The library of the new Lithuanian University in Kovno will also presumably need a number of books, now out of print, which other libraries may possibly possess in duplicate.

His Majesty the King of the Belgians:

The Prince de CARAMAN, His Minister of Foreign Affairs, and the Chevalier de MOREAU, His Minister of Agriculture, Industry and Public Works;

His Majesty the Emperor of Brazil:

The Count de VILLENEUVE, His Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary near His Majesty the King of the Belgians;

Her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain:

M. de TAVIRA, Chargé d'Affaires *ad interim* of Spain at Brussels;

His Majesty the King of Italy:

The Marquis MAFFEI, His Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary near His Majesty the King of the Belgians;

His Majesty the King of Portugal and of the Algarves:

The Baron de SANT' ANNA, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of His Very Faithful Majesty;

His Majesty the King of Servia:

M. MARINOVITCH, His Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary near His Majesty the King of the Belgians;

The Federal Council of the Swiss Confederation:

M. RIVIER, its special Plenipotentiary:

Who, after having communicated between themselves their full powers, which are found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following Articles:

Article 1. — There shall be established in each of the contracting States a bureau charged with the duty of the exchanges.

Article 2. — The publications which the contracting States agree to exchange are the following:

1st. The official documents, parliamentary and administrative, which are published in the country of their origin.

2nd. The works executed by order and at the expense of the Governments.

Article 3. — Each bureau shall cause to be printed a list of the publications that it is able to place at the disposal of the contracting States.

This list shall be corrected and completed each year and regularly addressed to all of the bureaux of exchange.

Article 4. — The bureaux of exchange will arrange between themselves the number of copies which they may be able eventually to demand and furnish.

Article 5. — The transmissions shall be made directly from bureau to bureau. Uniform models and formulas will be adopted for the memoranda of the contents of the cases, as well as for all the administrative correspondence, requests, acknowledgments of reception, etc.

Article 6. — For exterior transmissions, each State assumes the expense of packing and transportation to the place of destination. Nevertheless, when the transmissions shall be made by sea special arrangements will regulate the share of each State in the expense of transportation.

Article 7. — The bureaux of exchange will serve, in an officious capacity, as intermediaries between the learned bodies and literary and scientific societies, etc., of the contracting States for the reception and transmission of their publications.

It remains, however, well understood that, in such case, the duty of the bureaux of exchange will be confined to the free transmission of the works exchanged and that these bureaux will not in any manner take the initiative to bring about the establishment of such relations.

Article 8. — These provisions apply only to the documents and works published after the date of the present Convention.

Article 9. — The States which have not taken part in the present Convention are admitted to adhere to it on their request.

This adhesion will be notified diplomatically to the Belgian Government and by that Government to all the other signatory States.

Article 10. — The present Convention will be ratified and the ratifications will be exchanged at Brussels, as soon as practicable. It is concluded for ten years, from the day of the exchange of ratifications, and it will remain in force beyond that time, so long as one of the Governments shall not have declared six months in advance that it renounces it.

In witness whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed it, and have thereunto affixed their seals.

Done at Brussels in eight copies the fifteenth day of March, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-six.

(Signed) (Seal) Pr. de CARAMAN.
(Seal) Chevalier de MOREAU.
(Seal) Cte. de VILLENEUVE.
(Seal) José Ma. de TAVIRA.
(Seal) Lambert TREE.

(Seal) MAFFEI.
(Seal) Baron de SANT' ANNA.
(Seal) J. MARINOVITCH.
(Seal) Alphonse RIVIER.

II.

CONVENTION FOR THE IMMEDIATE EXCHANGE OF OFFICIAL JOURNALS,
PARLIAMENTARY ANNALS AND DOCUMENTS.

Concluded at Brussels, March 15th, 1886.

THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, HIS MAJESTY THE KING OF THE BELGIANS, HIS MAJESTY THE EMPEROR OF BRAZIL, HER MAJESTY THE QUEEN REGENT OF SPAIN, HIS MAJESTY THE KING OF ITALY, HIS MAJESTY THE KING OF PORTUGAL AND OF THE ALGARVES, HIS MAJESTY THE KING OF SERVIA:

Desiring to assure the immediate exchange of the Official Journal as well as of the parliamentary Annals and Documents of their respective States, have named as their Plenipotentiaries, to wit:

The President of the United States of America:

Mr. LAMBERT TREE, Minister Resident of the United States of America at Brussels;

His Majesty the King of the Belgians:

The Prince de CARAMAN, His Minister of Foreign Affairs, and the Chevalier de MOREAU, His Minister of Agriculture, Industry and Public Works;

His Majesty the Emperor of Brazil:

The Count de VILLENEUVE, His Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary near His Majesty the King of the Belgians;

Her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain:

M. de TAVIRA, Chargé d'Affaires *ad interim* of Spain at Brussels;

His Majesty the King of Italy:

The Marquis MAFFEI, His Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary near His Majesty the King of the Belgians;

His Majesty the King of Portugal and of the Algarves:

The Baron de SANT' ANNA, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of His Very Faithful Majesty;

His Majesty the King of Servia:

M. MARINOVITCH, His Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary near His Majesty the King of the Belgians;

Who, after having communicated between themselves their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following Articles:

Article 1. — Independently of the obligations which result from Article 2 of the General Convention of this day relative to the exchange of official documents and of scientific and literary publications, the respective Governments undertake to have transmitted to the legislative chambers of each contracting State, as fast as their publication, a copy of the Official Journal as well as of the parliamentary annals and documents which are given publicity.

Article 2. — The States which have not taken part in the present Convention are admitted to adhere thereto on their request.

This adhesion will be notified diplomatically to the Belgian Government, and by that Government to all the other signatory States.

Article 3. — The present Convention will be ratified and the ratifications will be exchanged at Brussels as soon as practicable. It is concluded for ten years from the day of the exchange of the ratifications and it will remain in force beyond that time, so long as one of the Governments shall not have declared six months in advance that it renounces it.

In witness whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed it, and have thereunto affixed their seals.

Done at Brussels, in seven copies the fifteenth day of March, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-six.

(Signed) (Seal) Lambert TREE.

(Seal) Pr. de CARAMAN.

(Seal) Chevalier de MOREAU.

(Seal) Comte de VILLENEUVE.

(Seal) José M. de TAVIRA.

(Seal) MAFFEI.

(Seal) Baron de SANT' ANNA.

(Seal) J. MARINOVITCH.

The exchange of ratifications took place at Brussels on January 14th, 1889.

Annex 7.

RESOLUTIONS OF THE COMMITTEE OF EXPERTS.

1. *Exchange of Official Publications.*

States which have not yet adhered to the Convention of 1886 and which regard the obligation contained in Article 2 as imposing too heavy a burden, whether on account of the great number of their official publications or owing to their financial situation or for any other reason, may adhere to the Convention subject to the reservation that they may, in agreement with any country, limit the number of publications sent thereto. Exchanges between such States and States which have adhered to the Convention without reservation shall be governed by the same principle.

"The Belgian Government is requested to notify the text of the above resolution to the States which are parties to the Convention of March 15th, 1886. These States shall at the same time be informed that any partial adhesions which may be given in accordance with the said resolution will be notified to them by the same Government as and when they occur, such adhesions to become binding only in the relations between such of the parties as accept them and the adhering States.

"Any offer of partial adhesion shall be communicated to the Belgian Government and notified by the latter to each of the States which are parties to the Convention of 1886, including those which have been permitted to adhere partially to that Treaty, each of such States being invited at the same time to inform the said Government, within a year following the notification, whether it accepts the partial adhesion so far as it concerns itself. An adhesion shall be regarded as not having been accepted by any State which has not expressed its acceptance within the said period¹."

2. *Exchange of Scientific and Literary Publications.*

The Committee of experts decides to recommend the following draft Convention to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, it being agreed that, in accordance with the procedure usually followed in the case of conventions concluded under the auspices of the League of Nations, the Legal Section of the Secretariat shall draw up the protocol clauses thereof :

DRAFT CONVENTION ADOPTED BY THE COMMITTEE OF EXPERTS ON JULY 19TH, 1924.

Article 1. — Independently of the obligations which might result for each of them from the previous Conventions relative to the exchange of publications, the High Contracting Parties undertake to exchange as fast as they are published, at least in one copy :

- (a) All the current repertories of National Bibliography of a general character;
- (b) As far as possible, the documents of every kind giving information on the recent acquisitions of their scientific libraries.

Article 2. — Each Contracting State agrees to take all measures which it judges desirable:

- (a) In order to make easily accessible to all interested parties the lists communicated to it according to Article 1;
- (b) In order to secure a favourable consideration of all the proposals of exchange which might be addressed to it by all the Contracting States, with regard to scientific or literary publications included in the above-mentioned list.

Article 3. — To facilitate generally the exchange of works which are the most important or most representative of the various types of national culture, the High Contracting Parties shall collect or catalogue the publications received by gift or otherwise which are available for international exchange. They will publish from time to time a list of these works.

This list will also give the names of works existing in duplicate in libraries which may be exchanged.

Article 4. — The High Contracting Parties undertake to encourage in every way the multiplication of exchanges of scientific and literary publications, whether State-subsidised or not, between academies and learned societies, universities and scientific institutions, as laid down in Article 7 of the Convention of 1886.

Article 5. — The High Contracting Parties undertake to publish annual reports on the work of their exchange services. These reports shall be transmitted to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which shall publish extracts therefrom, together with a general report on the work of the international exchanges during the period in question.

¹ The last two paragraphs have been drafted by the Legal Section of the Secretariat of the League of Nations in accordance with the resolution and instructions of the Committee of experts, as approved by the Plenary Committee.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

First Series

GENERAL QUESTIONS

THE CONDITIONS OF
LIFE AND WORK
OF
MUSICIANS

by William MARTIN

Representative of the International Labour Office
on the Committee of Intellectual Co-operation

Volume II

NOTE

The object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing this series of pamphlets is to call attention to the problems of organisation and intellectual assistance to which each subject gives rise. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but desires rather to bring them to the notice of the public and to provide an opportunity for further suggestions.

The authors alone are responsible for the opinions expressed.

CONTENTS

Volume I

	Page
I. INTRODUCTORY NOTE	3
II. GERMANY	8
A. The Teaching of Music	9
B. Solo Performers and Composers	12
C. Concerted Music	14
D. Conclusion	19
III. HUNGARY	20
A. The Teaching of Music	20
B. Solo Performers and Composers	22
C. Concerted Music	23
IV. POLAND	26
A. The Teaching of Music	26
B. Solo Performers and Composers	27
C. Concerted Music	27
V. AUSTRIA	30
A. The Teaching of Music	31
B. Solo Performers and Composers	33
C. Concerted Music	35
Appendix	37
VI. ITALY	40
A. The Teaching of Music	41
B. Public Performers and Composers	43
C. Orchestral Music	47

Volume II

VII. BELGIUM	6
A. The Teaching of Music	6
B. Solo Performers and Composers	7
C. Concerted Music	11
S. D. N. 1.100. 9/24. Impr. Berger-Levrault.	

	Page
VIII. FRANCE	14
A. The Teaching of Music	14
B. Solo Performers and Composers	15
C. Concerted Music	18
IX. GREAT BRITAIN	23
A. The Teaching of Music	23
B. Solo Performers and Composers	24
C. Concerted Music	26
X. SWITZERLAND	30
A. The Teaching of Music	30
B. Solo Performers and Composers	32
C. Concerted Music	34
XI. BULGARIA	38
I. Conditions of Entry to the Profession	38
II. Employment and Unemployment	38
III. Conditions of Life	39
IV. Conditions of Work	39
V. Miscellaneous	40
XII. DENMARK	40
I. Conditions of Entry to the Profession	40
II. Conditions of Life	41
III. Conditions of Work	41
IV. Miscellaneous	41
XIII. SPAIN	43
I. Conditions of Entry to the Profession	43
II. Employment and Unemployment	43
III. Conditions of Life	44
IV. Conditions of Work	44
V. Miscellaneous	45
XIV. NETHERLANDS	45
I. Conditions of Entry to the Profession	45
II. Conditions of Life	46
III. Conditions of Work	46
IV. Miscellaneous	47
XV. PORTUGAL	47
I. Conditions of Entry to the Profession	48
II. Employment and Unemployment	48
III. Conditions of Life	48
IV. Conditions of Work	49
V. Organisation of the Profession	49
VI. Miscellaneous	50
XVI. SWEDEN	50
I. Conditions of Entry to the Profession	50
II. Employment and Unemployment	51
III. Conditions of Life	51
IV. Conditions of Work	52
V. Miscellaneous	

	Page
XVII. CZECHOSLOVAKIA	53
I. Conditions of Entry to the Profession	53
II. Employment and Unemployment	53
III. Conditions of Life	53
IV. Conditions of Work.	54
V. Miscellaneous	55
XVIII. ARGENTINE.	56
XIX. LATVIA	58
XX. CONCLUSION	59
A. Teaching	60
B. Solo Performers and Composers	61
C. Concerted Music.	62
D. The Demands of Musicians,	65

VII. — BELGIUM

Belgium is one of the foremost countries for performers of music. The district of Liège is famous both for the number and for the standing of its violinists. From this district come large numbers of orchestral performers, most of them of a high grade. The Borinage is celebrated for its singers, and in general the inhabitants of the Walloon districts are enthusiastic performers of concerted music, both choral and instrumental. Mixed and male-voice choirs and village bands exist in large numbers. The Flemish part of the country, on the other hand, appears to be less musical, and too many of its folk songs have died out.

Although Belgium has produced a few great musicians, of whom César Franck is the best known, it has as yet no really national musical tradition, lying as it does at the cross-roads of so many highways, open to so many different influences.

The war produced contradictory effects on music in Belgium; some musicians had to leave the country and, in contact with other influences, developed, but at the expense of their originality. In Belgium itself music was for four years the only recreation open to the inhabitants, who took it up enthusiastically. During this time, however, Belgian musicians lost touch with other countries, and they realised this loss of contact when their colleagues who had left the country returned after the Armistice.

The general preference in Belgium is for French music. There is no important music publishing firm in Belgium, and Belgian composers depend on Paris publishers and obtain their royalties mainly through the Paris Society of Authors. The result is that this country, which has produced so many performers of music, may be regarded, from an artistic point of view, as in some sort a dependency of France.

A. The Teaching of Music.

There are four Royal Conservatoires of Music in Belgium—at Brussels, Liège, Ghent, and Antwerp. The largest is that of Liège, where no less than 32 medals are distributed every year. The number of students at the Brussels Conservatoire is about 600.

A professor's salary is 8,200 francs for 14 hours' teaching; this is equivalent to about 1,800 francs in pre-war purchasing power, whereas in 1914 professors earned from 3,000 to 4,000 francs. The number of students at these conservatoires has not decreased, but there are complaints that the general level of capacity has fallen. Many who would previously have been content to study music as amateurs now wish to train as professionals, but have not always the necessary ability.

Professors complain chiefly of a lack of general education in their pupils; most of them have only had an elementary education. Some of the girls have remained at school until the age of 14 or 15, but the general level is very low, and this naturally detracts from the musical proficiency of the students. This is partly due to the fact that instruction at the conservatoires is free, and that pupils are recruited by competitive examination from the communal schools of music.

There are a large number of these schools in Belgium. Before the war there were twenty in Hainault, fifteen in Eastern Flanders, thirteen in Brabant, and twelve in Western Flanders. They are managed by the communal authorities. The classes are intended for children attending school or for employed adults, and therefore are generally held on Thursday and Sunday or

at night. No fees are charged to inhabitants of the commune, and only 10 francs a year to others. The classes with the largest attendance are those in tonic sol-fa and singing, but most of the schools also teach all kinds of instrumental music.

Special mention should be made of the Schaerbeek school, which specialises in singing. It has about 700 pupils for tonic sol-fa and 120 for singing. The courses lead up to competitive examinations, for which medals are awarded. According to the director of this school, the teaching of singing reaches as high a standard as at the Brussels Conservatoire.

Teachers' salaries are twice as high as before the war; but the cost of living is five times as high, and they have recently asked for a further increase of 30 per cent.

These communal schools are definitely intended for the population as a whole. There are also a large number of private schools intended mainly for pupils belonging to the middle classes and for amateurs. The fee per lesson in private schools has about doubled; where it was 5 francs before the war it is now 10, but most teachers regard 5 francs as a reasonable fee, although this is only equal to one franc before the war. The increase is thus very much less than the rise in the cost of living, the index number of which is approximately 500.

The number of pupils has not decreased, but the number of lessons has fallen considerably, as many pupils take fewer lessons than formerly, and the length of the holidays has been unduly increased. Here again the ability of pupils is less than formerly; the best pupils, under the pressure of economic conditions, now go to the conservatoires with a view to using their talent professionally. They have been replaced in numbers, but not in ability. Only such branches of music as the piano or singing, which are regarded as accomplishments, still attract a sufficient number of pupils; teachers of special instruments, even the cello, find very few.

B. Solo Performers and Composers.

The characteristic feature of the musical life of the large towns is the extent to which it is dependent on wealthy patrons.

At Brussels the deficit of 60,000 francs on the Concerts populaires last year was made good by the director of one of the banks, while the deficit on the Concerts spirituels was covered by collections. M. Houdret, who has just started a new symphony orchestra, is said to be supported by wealthy men of Verviers. At Antwerp the Nouveaux Concerts are supported by an important section of the wealthy middle class and are popularly said to have received grants amounting to no less than 500,000 francs last year.

Concerts in Belgium, as in other countries, do not make large profits, but, more frequently perhaps than elsewhere, they receive disinterested support from wealthy men of culture.

The support given to music by two of the largest banks in Brussels is also a form of patronage. These banks, on the suggestion of their directors, have decided to grant those of their staff who are members of a recently formed mixed choir special leave to enable them to attend practices. These are held on Friday afternoons, and the fact that the choir consists of bank clerks enables the director to check the attendance of members.

The Ministry of War also encourages musical development in a manner worthy of note. The officer commanding the cavalry, General Buffin, was himself a composer, and is devoted to music in every form. During the war he collected several talented musicians in his regiment, and when in rest billets he gave them the necessary free time to play orchestral music. This was the origin of the "Pro Arte" Quartette, which has already acquired an extensive reputation. General Buffin's support did not stop at this; he wished the band of the 1st Regiment of Guides to be a first-class one from a musical point of view. This regimental orchestra, which has a large number of string players, devotes itself, under its conductor's influence, largely to the most modern music. It assists at the concerts given by the "Pro Arte" Quartette, and as rehearsals are held during hours of duty, it is possible to rehearse much more frequently than an ordinary orchestra could. Recently, for instance, the "Pro Arte" concerts rehearsed one of Stravinsky's works at least twenty times, which would have been impossible without the assistance of the military authorities.

While the Ministry of War is interested in music, the Ministry of Finance is less so. Both State and municipal taxes have hitherto been extremely heavy; in 1922 they produced altogether 36,000,000 francs. Cinema receipts are subject to a tax of 25 per cent. and those of dancing halls to one of 30 per cent. While it is true that artistic performances are not so heavily taxed, municipal rates vary very much; it is stated that the total of the various State and municipal taxes has sometimes been more than 15 per cent. of the gross receipts. A large proportion of the private donations to the Concerts populaires has been used to pay taxes. More than this, the Théâtre de la Monnaie, which receives grants of 275,000 francs from the municipality and 107,000 francs from the Government, paid more than 400,000 francs in taxes during the season, so that it paid to the community more than it received from it.

This was the cause of a prolonged dispute last winter between the various concert organisers and the orchestral musicians, and a question was asked by M. Louis Piérard in the Chamber of Deputies. This dispute, as a result of which Brussels was deprived of symphony concerts for most of the winter, was apparently due to the demands of the musicians for an increase of salary. In fact, however, the object of the concert organisers in opposing these demands was not to refuse reasonable increases in salaries but to compel the Government to decrease taxation instead of increasing it, as appeared to be the intention. This result was finally achieved, and the Ministry of Finance, by a more liberal interpretation of the law, has now granted total or partial exemption from taxation to musical undertakings not conducted for profit. It is not known whether the concerts of the Zoological Society will also be entitled to this exemption.

Concert organisers also had another object in depriving the public of music—to force up the price of seats. In Brussels, in spite of its size, there are no large concert halls. Concerts take place either at the Conservatoire or at the Théâtre de la Monnaie. The first of these seats only 800, while to give concerts in the second entails considerable expenditure on fittings. A Palace of Fine Arts, which will cost seven million francs, is at present under construction, but in the meantime it is essential to increase concert receipts. The prices of seats in theatres, even at the Monnaie, have not increased by any means in the same proportion as the cost of living, as they have only doubled. Theatrical proprietors, however, hesitate to raise prices further, as they fear that the audiences would dwindle and that most of the cultured sections of the population would be deprived of any artistic entertainment.

Brussels has at present no permanent orchestra exclusively for the performance of symphonies; nor is there any association of musicians in existence giving concerts at their own expense. There are, however, several concert organisers, both in Brussels and in the provinces. In the capital there are the Concerts populaires, the Concerts Isaie, the Concerts spirituels, under the direction of Josef Jongen, the Concerts Houdret, the Concerts du Conservatoire, the Concerts de la Société des Compositeurs belges, and the Concerts Pro Arte, the first four with full orchestra, the last with the regimental band of the Guides.

The Concerts populaires give a series of six performances at the Théâtre de la Monnaie during the season, and one additional performance; each concert is preceded by a public rehearsal. These concerts perform a great deal of modern music and do not hesitate to undertake the considerable expenditure demanded by certain modern productions. The performance of Stravinsky's *Sacre du Printemps*, for instance, which was preceded by a large number of rehearsals, cost at least 20,000 francs. Last winter the Concerts populaires were suspended owing to the dispute between the concert organisers and the musicians' trade union. The Concerts Isaie were also suspended, but were replaced by chamber concerts and by the Concerts spirituels, with piano and orchestral accompaniment.

On the other hand M. Houdret, who had only just started his concerts, immediately accepted the musicians' demands. He was the only manager to give symphony concerts, and was able, in spite of opposition from a certain section of the public, to give Wagner performances to full houses.

There is considerable musical activity in the provincial towns also. At Antwerp the Zoological Gardens Company gives weekly concerts; while the Nouveaux Concerts are held at the

Royal Opera House six times during the winter. Ghent has four symphony concerts during the winter, while there are nine concerts at Ostend on Fridays during the summer, given by an orchestra of from 80 to 90 of the best performers in the country. Symphony concerts are also given in several other provincial towns.

The position of solo performers in Belgium is very similar to that in other countries. The cost of a concert without orchestra is estimated at about 1,200 to 1,500 francs, and it is difficult to cover this sum by the sale of tickets.

In one sense, however, the position of solo performers would appear to be better in Belgium than elsewhere. During the four years of war social gatherings of all kinds were prohibited in Belgium, while Belgians, from patriotic motives, refrained from attending performances at which German officers were present, and which were often devoted entirely to German music. During this time chamber concerts afforded practically the only opportunity for Belgians to meet. Once the programme had been approved, the German authorities did not concern themselves further and the Belgians felt at home at these performances. The number of concerts of this kind therefore greatly increased in Brussels during the war, and they created a very keen appreciation of chamber music.

Among subsidiary resources available to musicians, mention may be made of the radio concerts, which take place daily at Brussels. Performers at these concerts are paid at trade union rates, 10 francs for matinées and 30 francs for evening performances.

The musicians have not yet adopted a definite attitude as regards wireless concerts. While the Antwerp trade union has forbidden its members to perform in them, the Brussels union has entered into negotiations with the wireless company. But the orchestral musicians are disturbed at the proposal to connect certain concert halls directly with a wireless transmitting station; this would amount to including in the audience not only those who have paid for admission but also the general public who have not paid. This is a new and interesting instance of the old struggle between organised labour and new mechanical inventions.

In operatic music, the Théâtre de la Monnaie enjoys a world-wide reputation; but the actors' salaries are far below pre-war standards. Actors who were in receipt of 5,000 francs a month in 1913 are now only paid 8,000 or 9,000 francs, representing a pre-war purchasing power of only about 1,600 or 1,800 francs. This decrease is not compensated, as it is for Germans or Italians, by engagements abroad or tours in America. As a general rule, the French-speaking actor speaks nothing but French and scarcely ever tours abroad; there is no French company in the United States. The only compensation open to operatic performers in the French language consists of engagements at casinos in watering-places in the summer.

It is becoming more and more usual in France to employ repertory opera companies, members of which are paid comparatively small salaries, and to engage "stars" for certain performances. Under this system some ten or a dozen singers monopolise all the best parts on the French operatic stage.

The management of the Théâtre de la Monnaie for a long time endeavoured to avoid introducing this system, which leads to lack of balance in the production. It is probable, however, that it will soon be forced to adopt it, as the majority of good operatic singers now refuse to sign contracts for eleven months.

In the small parts the proportion of Belgian actors has increased in comparison with 1913, as it is increasingly difficult for foreigners to live in Belgium on a salary of 1,500 francs a month. The price of seats has not increased in the same proportion as the cost of living, since it has only doubled. No appreciable change in the composition or social standing of audiences has been observed.

The Théâtre de la Monnaie has not yet recommenced the production of Wagner's operas, in which it had reached a very high standard before the war; this may be due partly to sentimental reasons and partly also to the difficulty of obtaining the necessary performers.

There are two opera houses at Antwerp: the Royal Opera and the Vlaamsche Lyrisch Toneel, the Flemish Lyric Opera. Some of the actors are Dutch, but as a general rule this theatre is able to recruit its performers, both singers and instrumentalists, in the Flemish parts

of Belgium. It has a fairly large repertoire, either composed in Flemish or translated, but it also performs many French and German works. The cost of translating an opera into Flemish is estimated at about a thousand francs.

The position of composers in Belgium is particularly difficult, for material and other reasons. As already noted, Belgium is situated at the cross-roads, as it were, and is subject to various artistic influences so that it has no great tradition of musical composition, apart from César Franck, who lived in Paris, Lequeux, and Peter Benoît, for the Flemish section of the country. The war, which drove some composers from their own country and cut the others off from contact with the outside world, did not tend to strengthen or unite the Belgian school of music. Finally, and this is perhaps the chief reason, the public itself displays little interest in the work of native composers. It prefers to listen to French music and would not come to a concert devoted exclusively to Belgian music. At Ostend the audiences were of a more international character and appear on the whole to be more favourable to the work of Belgian composers. In spite of this, however, a concert on July 21st, 1923, at the Ostend Casino, devoted exclusively to Belgian music, realised 1,500 francs less than the other concerts of the season.

The fact that the Belgian public so definitely prefers French music is no doubt largely due to the absence in Belgium of an independent firm of music publishers and of a national society for collecting royalties; in both these respects Belgium depends entirely upon France.

There is no lack of the necessary equipment for publishing music; on the contrary, there are in Belgium engravers of the highest class, and much of the music published by Breitkopf and Härtel before the war was engraved and printed in Belgium. But there is no firm of music publishers in Belgium which can compete with those of Paris. The latter compel Belgian music sellers, if they wish to sell classical music, to accept all the latest works published in Paris. In return, they will only take Belgian publications on sale or return, which is notoriously equivalent to burying them. French publishers adopt the same policy towards the theatres; in order to obtain permission to play *Carmen* or *Manon*, Belgian theatres must perform the latest operas. Surprise has often been expressed at the mediocre and expensive character of the operas performed by certain Belgian theatres; this is the explanation.

With this means of pressure at their disposal, French publishers naturally exercise a preponderating influence on the musical taste of the Belgian public; they can practically boycott musicians of whom they disapprove; Flemish musicians, with a Teutonic tradition, complain bitterly of this ostracism.

As already stated, there is no society for collecting royalties in Belgium. The Paris Society of Authors is represented by a committee in Brussels, which controls the collection and payment of royalties. The operations of this committee have been much criticised in Belgium. It is stated that nearly 3,000,000 francs were paid in royalties last year in Belgium, almost one-third of the total royalties collected by the Society of Authors. Naturally only part of this sum was paid to Belgians, since far more foreign than Belgian music is performed. This has given rise to considerable discontent.

A national Society of Authors for collecting royalties has been formed at Antwerp, but has been criticised even in Belgium as a separatist Flemish organisation. Its funds are very limited and it has only succeeded in practice in making managers hesitate to perform works composed by its members owing to the fear of having to pay royalties twice; for the Paris Society of Authors does not recognise this national society and claims full royalties, whatever works are performed.

With a similar object, some of the members of the Musicians' Union at Brussels formed a mutual aid society in order to obtain copies of the programmes and accounts of the Paris Society of Authors; but this latter body is so powerful that any attempt at opposition is met with a refusal to allow its members' works to be performed, and such an attitude would make musical activity in Belgium very difficult, if not impossible.

The German music publishers have endeavoured to adopt a similar policy, but they have not succeeded, as the copyright of most of their publications has expired and they have been re-published in Paris. Thus it is possible to ignore the German publishers, but not the French.

The case of the National Society of Authors, referred to above, is an illustration of the weakness of the Belgian musical world, which is divided against itself in language and politics. The Flemish Opera at Antwerp is regarded as a centre of Flemish propaganda in art; while the Flemings complain that the Walloons try to rob them of some of their great musicians, such as Gilson and de Boeck, and under-estimate the musical talent of the Flemings. Before the war Flemish musicians could at least have their works published in Germany, but at present they do not wish to adopt this course. Their relations with the Netherlands are not particularly close, those with Paris are difficult, and they suffer from this state of isolation.

C. Concerted Music.

As already stated, Belgium produces large numbers of performers of music. The Belgian Federation of Musicians had no less than 6,671 members in 1923, which is a very high proportion in a population of seven millions. It is true that some of these musicians, particularly among players of wind instruments, are only semi-professionals and are not entirely dependent on music for their living, but the membership of the trade unions is nevertheless very large.

It was also stated that the greatest number of musicians, especially players of stringed instruments, come from the Liège district. For a long time the salaries of musicians were lower in Liège than in other towns, which resulted in musicians migrating from Liège to Brussels or Antwerp. The leaders of the Musicians' Federation have made great efforts to equalise salaries and conditions of work as far as possible throughout Belgium, with a view to counteracting this exodus of musicians from Liège to other provinces; they have not, however, received very active support from the Liège union, and this has resulted in rather vigorous disputes within the unions.

As may be imagined, few foreigners are employed in Belgium. The number of foreign musicians in Brussels (Poles, Czechs, Russians, French) is estimated at about 200, or 9 per cent. of the total. The proportion is probably lower in the provinces. No restrictions are placed on the immigration of foreigners in Belgium, and the Musicians' Union gave an unfavourable opinion in reply to an enquiry from the Government on the point. Belgian musicians, in fact, stand to gain by preventing other countries from closing their doors to them. Since access to Great Britain has been completely barred, Belgian musicians chiefly go to towns in eastern France, such as Nancy, Metz, or Strasburg.

There are few musicians unemployed in Belgium, but it is estimated that of 2,000 musicians belonging to trade unions at Brussels only 700 are entirely dependent upon orchestral music for their living. The others give lessons, or engage in occupations which have no connection with music.

Seasonal unemployment has decreased considerably since the Théâtre de la Monnaie, which remains open for 11 months in the year, has paid its musicians for 12 months and prohibited them from taking other engagements during the holidays.

The chief watering-places, Spa, Ostend, Blankenberghe, employ on an average from 300 to 400 musicians during the summer months, and they earn on an average from 45 to 48 francs (9 to 10 francs pre-war) a day. These musicians are mainly recruited in Brussels and Ghent. Seasonal unemployment is relatively greater at Antwerp, where the two opera houses are only open for eight months in the year.

There are no trade union unemployment insurance funds or any other thrift institutions of this kind, as the trade unions are purely professional in character. The musicians of the Théâtre de la Monnaie have, however, organised a pension fund to which each member contributes 50 francs a month. The contribution is fixed at such a high rate in order rapidly to accumulate the capital necessary for providing adequate pensions; the members have even agreed to pay 2 francs extra with a view to increasing the pensions of their older comrades. The management of the theatre co-operates in the fund by paying an annual contribution of 48,000 francs.

There are no permanent symphony orchestras paying regular monthly salaries, nor any co-operative associations of musicians. The Association of the Conservative Orchestra at present only includes professors of the Conservatoire. Other musicians who belonged to this association have been obliged to withdraw from it on the instructions of their trade unions, because they had been unable to obtain a statement of accounts from the management of the Conservatoire.

All the orchestras at present performing are therefore entirely composed of salaried musicians. This makes the performance of symphony music exceedingly costly, and explains why the capital was entirely deprived of music for a whole season owing to a wage dispute. The members of symphony orchestras are all attached to cinemas or to theatres, and when playing at a concert are obliged to find a substitute to do their regular work. If, therefore, they earn less by playing at a concert than by their ordinary work at a cinema, they find themselves out of pocket; this was actually the case with the old salary rates.

Under the new scale, musicians are paid 30 francs for a performance and 18 francs for a rehearsal, equivalent roughly to 6 and 3 pre-war francs respectively. These salaries are not high, and the increase is far less than that of the cost of living. It is, however, impossible for them to obtain more. For the majority of orchestral musicians, moreover, these salaries are only a secondary resource. It was for this reason that the dispute in Brussels continued for so long a time. Few musicians earn more than 100 or 120 francs per month by playing at concerts, and this amount, though not to be despised, is not indispensable. The employers' lock-out therefore did not affect the actual livelihood of the musicians; the position would have been different had the lock-out extended to cinemas, which are their main source of income.

The number of cinemas is continually on the increase; but the number of posts for musicians has not increased in the same proportion. Cinemas at first competed with each other in music, but they now tend to co-operate with a view to reducing expenses. At the Agora, for instance, which at first maintained an orchestra of 45 musicians, this number has now been reduced by half, and there are now few cinemas which maintain an orchestra of more than 18 to 20 performers.

Musicians in operatic orchestras are engaged on a special form of agreement. At the Théâtre de la Monnaie the musicians are paid from 800 to 1,100 francs a month (160 to 220 francs pre-war), but receive 12 months' salary for eleven months' work. They are not employed every evening, as the orchestra has 85 members and many of the performances do not require so large an orchestra. In this manner the management is able to avoid paying substitutes for musicians who are ill. Under their agreement performers must attend 60 rehearsals a year, which means about 80 rehearsals for the orchestra as a whole; the majority of French-speaking operatic theatres are not in a position to hold so many rehearsals.

A different system prevails at Antwerp at the Flemish Opera. The agreement for musicians provides for 900 hours' attendance per year, distributed over a period of eight months, which is equivalent to an average of 4 hours daily, with a maximum of 7 hours per day. No distinction is made between performances and rehearsals. The management agrees to pay overtime for any work done in excess of 7 hours a day.

The system of providing substitutes for rehearsals is unknown in Belgium, except at the Théâtre de la Monnaie, where it is regularly practised within the orchestra.

Belgian musicians complain very strongly that there is no provision for a weekly rest-day, and they demand an international agreement on this point.

There are a large number of military bands in Belgium; there are five, with 80 performers, in Brussels alone. Some of these bands are very good, particularly that of the First Regiment of Guides, which includes many stringed instruments and performs modern music particularly. The pay of military bandsmen varies from 400 to 600 francs a month according to their instrument, and they are allowed to accept private engagements when off duty, which places them in a privileged position.

Trade unionism in Belgium is so strong that it is practically impossible for a musician to play in any orchestra if he does not belong to the union. The union has undertaken a vigorous

campaign, in the interest of both civil and military performers, to ensure that the services of military bands shall not be lent to private undertakings, thus competing with the regular musicians. A circular from the Ministry of National Defence, published in *L'Artiste musicien* of October 1922, settled this question to the satisfaction of all parties concerned. Under this circular military bands may only perform as such at military functions, public celebrations organised by members of the army, or festivals of a definitely patriotic or philanthropic character.

In practice, however, this circular has resulted in certain difficulties. The unions have protested on various occasions against what they describe as abuses; the distinctions mentioned are difficult to make in practice. For instance, the band of the First Regiment of Guides is the regular orchestra for the "Pro Arte" concerts; while performers are paid at the ordinary rates for these concerts, rehearsals are part of their military duty, and this fact prejudices the interests of musicians to a certain extent, although it has assisted the organisation of these concerts and consequently the development of musical art.

It is a curious fact that in a country whose population is partly of Teutonic origin there is no old-established choral tradition. A few choirs have existed at one time or another, especially male-voice choirs, but mixed choirs are rare. The principal choirs to be noted are : the *Disciples de Guétry* and the *Lègia* at Liège, the *Melomanes* at Ghent, the *Artisans réunis* at Brussels, and the *Chorale Sainte-Cécile* and the *Arti Vocale* at Antwerp.

In the Walloon district, especially in the Borinage, there are a large number of village or factory choirs, but on the whole their musical standard is not high and their only value is that they sometimes produce good solo voices.

This absence of mixed amateur choirs, which is surprising in view of the high standard in the Netherlands in this respect, makes it difficult to perform symphonies with choirs. The Concerts spirituels at Brussels, for example, are often obliged to engage singers, paid at trade union rates, for choral performances. Other societies have been obliged to form entirely professional choirs, which naturally leads to a considerable increase in the cost of choral concerts.

At the present moment the Société des Concerts populaires is making strenuous efforts to constitute a mixed choir in Brussels for its performances. A female-voice choir with 150 members has been in existence for two years. The male-voice choir is in process of formation; in order to assist in this two of the principal banks in Brussels, the Banque d'Outre-Mer, and the Banque de Bruxelles have agreed to give their employees who belong to it half-an-hour's leave a week to enable them to attend rehearsals.

As regards religious music, the choir-schools at Brussels are disappearing owing to the difficulty of finding boys' voices. There are, however, some of them still in existence at Malines thanks to the existence of church schools.

VIII. — FRANCE

A. The Teaching of Music.

Musical activity in France is somewhat limited both geographically and socially. It is highly centralised, and in accordance with a tradition of long standing musicians often prefer obscurity in Paris to fame in their native villages. Even in Paris music is only of interest to certain classes of society. Symphony concerts are seldom given in the evening, and the masses of the population have fewer opportunities of hearing music and extending their musical education than, for example, in Vienna.

It is not possible in this report to investigate the causes of this state of affairs. France has given birth to and indeed has, at the present time, so many famous musicians who are the product of the nation itself that it is impossible to suppose that the country as a whole is indifferent to music. It has, however, been noticed that the appearance of musicians in France is sporadic both in time and place.

The teaching of music in the elementary schools is only compulsory in the lower classes, and the instruction is not given by specialists. It thus follows that many children never come into contact with music and have no opportunity of recognising and developing their natural artistic tastes.

The lack of facilities for musical education is not fully compensated for by the conservatoires. There are not many of these in the provinces; the most important and the best are probably those of Lyons, Nantes, Orleans, Strasburg, Roubaix, Tourcoing, and Toulouse (for certain instruments). Wind instruments, especially wood wind, and certain string instruments are very well taught. Most of the students of singing, however, go to Paris. Some of the conservatoires only give instruction in certain instruments.

Private schools of music are not developed to anything like the same extent as in Germany. All the best known are in Paris. The public and private conservatoires are not open to beginners. For some of them a competitive entrance examination is required. Others, which are less exclusive, are nevertheless obliged to make a selection between the various candidates owing to lack of accommodation. This is the case, for example, in the Schola Cantorum in Paris ⁽¹⁾.

Persons who intend to take up music as a career generally begin by taking private lessons and subsequently proceed to the Paris Conservatoire. As most of the private teachers of music, both in the provinces and in Paris, have studied at the Conservatoire, and as the professors of the Conservatoire often teach music in private schools, the Conservatoire is the principal centre of musical education for France as a whole.

The economic depression does not appear to have had any very serious effect upon this institution. The professors are State officials. The maximum salary used to be 3,000 francs, which was only paid in exceptional cases. The present maximum, 8,000 francs, is paid to the majority of the professors. These salaries do not constitute the main part of the earnings of

(1) The Schola Cantorum, the director of which is M. Vincent d'Indy, was founded in 1896. It is an entirely private undertaking and receives no subsidy. It has about 600 pupils, who pay a few of 150 frs. per quarter. Members of the orchestra only pay one quarter's fee for the whole year. The school makes no profits, as all the money is devoted to improvements, the purchase of equipment, music, etc. The instructors receive very small salaries: about 100 frs. a month; many indeed give their services free. There is no examination, either for admission or on leaving, but as the number of places is limited the director selects those candidates whom he considers the most meritorious.

the professors, as the title of professor at the Conservatoire is a great advantage to the possessor in other ways.

There has been no falling-off in either the number or the quality of the students at the Conservatoire, except in the composition classes. The numbers range from seven to eight hundred. The number of instrumental students has actually increased.

Although the present situation is favourable for the Conservatoire itself, it is less so for the students. No fees are charged by the Conservatoire; but living in Paris is extremely expensive, especially for provincials. There is much distress among the students, in spite of the canteens, dormitories, and other welfare institutions which have been organised for their benefit. The director, M. H. Rabaud, would like the students to receive the same treatment as art students as regards repayable loans, but his efforts have not so far been successful.

Many of the students are obliged to work in order to support themselves. They find minor posts in the smaller theatres, the cafés, and the cinemas. This does not involve any very serious disadvantage for instrumental players, except fatigue, but it is very dangerous for students of singing and elocution, whose interests in their studies is often destroyed by premature success.

The position of private music teachers in France is the same as that of other independent workers and the lower middle classes. These are the classes which have been principally affected by the increase in the cost of living. It has been impossible to raise fees to an adequate extent; at the best they have been doubled, while the number of pupils has decreased. No very profound modifications have, however, taken place, and though the position of individuals has on the whole become worse it has not been essentially changed.

Competition among teachers of the piano and of singing is so great that only very well known teachers can make a good income. The average earnings are very small, especially as musicians are obliged to give concerts from time to time in order to keep up their reputation, and this is of course extremely expensive. The result is that the number of male pianists is constantly decreasing, and this is not without effect on the art of piano-playing itself, as women have less physical strength and interpret music in a different way. A similar state of affairs has been noted among violinists, where the proportion of women is also increasing. Women are often better students at the Conservatoire than men, and they are frequently more successful. It is stated, however, that orchestras would suffer if the substitution of women for men were to become general.

Special mention must be made of the teaching of singing. The critical situation of the art of singing is much discussed in France. Its cause is not a lack either of teachers or of pupils. The crisis is rather one of quality and still more of method. Singing is one of the most difficult arts to teach. The composition of vocal music, which was long dominated by Italian methods, has greatly changed in the last few years. Very little music is now composed for particular voices. Most songs are written in the middle register with occasionally a very high or a very low note. Some operatic parts, *e.g. Pelléas et Mélisande*, require exceptional capacity and an unusually large compass. The Association of Teachers of Singing (*Association professionnelle des maîtres de chant*) is making every effort to remedy this state of affairs by making a severe selection of singing teachers and only admitting fully qualified persons. The chief difficulty is, however, that no one knows exactly what are the qualifications required for a good teacher of singing, and that in many schools of music the teachers are appointed by the municipal councils on grounds which are not exclusively artistic.

B. Solo Performers and Composers.

In Paris musical activity is not so great as in Vienna. A large number of symphony concerts are given, as there are four large co-operative orchestras. These orchestras, however, consist entirely of members of theatre orchestras, and they can therefore, as a general rule, only perform in the afternoon. There are very few opportunities in Paris to hear orchestral

music outside working hours. The price of seats in the great opera houses is very high. It may be said without exaggeration that the best music in Paris is a privilege which is not accessible to the masses of the population.

The position of symphony orchestras, which is difficult in all countries, is particularly so in France. Art requires patrons, either public or private; and there are many complaints that generous donors are rare in the French musical world. The State gives very little and takes more in the form of taxes. The City of Paris gives a subsidy of 4,000-5,000 francs (less than before the war) to each of the large orchestras—each of which consists of about 60 players—and the subsidy to the Opera, which under the Restoration was 850,000 francs, is now only 700,000. The public authorities in the provinces are more generous. The City of Lyons, for example, gives its opera house an annual subsidy of 600,000 francs, and Strasburg 1,000,000 francs.

The performance of music in public is not, strictly speaking, a career except for a few exceptional individuals, most of them wealthy. Solo performers are generally teachers of music or composers. Some of them are orchestral conductors, while others are orchestral players. There are, however, no soloists, or very few, who live entirely by this means.

Before the war there was a rather curious tendency in Paris, perhaps due to fashion, perhaps to the influence of a clique, which opposed solo performances at symphony concerts. There were several demonstrations, and conductors hesitated to defy public opinion. At the present time the situation is entirely changed; the public is anxious to hear and applaud famous soloists. Performances of this kind are, however, still only an exceptional resource for the players in question.

Chamber concerts are becoming so numerous that the habit of filling the hall by means of complimentary tickets, which has long been adopted in other towns, is becoming increasingly prevalent in Paris. Such concerts are not a source of income for those who organise them, but rather an important item in the expenditure of a teacher of music on advertising ⁽¹⁾.

The fees for private engagements have not increased at all. Where 500 francs was paid before the war, 500 francs is still paid, in spite of the depreciation of the currency.

Musical composition is no more an independent career than solo performance. This is, of course, nothing new. One of the principal conductors in Paris made the following remark: "Most composers who ask me to perform a piece of music are very young. If by any chance I see one who is older he is rich—or else very poor." Almost all composers are obliged to engage in some subsidiary occupation; they are either teachers of music, performers, or critics, etc. Many people accept this state of affairs without anxiety and say that real talent always makes its way. There are of course many examples of this in the history of music. It is none the less true that such conditions of production are not really normal, and that excessive physical strain often results in a diminution of creative power. Not everyone has the constitution of César Franck. The deterioration in the living conditions of musicians can, therefore, hardly be regarded as likely to encourage musical composition.

The position of composers has, nevertheless, remained more stable in Paris than in other capitals, because the public is international and, on the whole, highly cultured, and because the general economic situation has not undergone any profound modification.

The public is still familiar with classical works, and has still a certain curiosity to hear modern music. A good composer can, although not without difficulty, find means of having an interesting piece of music performed.

This, however, is the least part of the difficulty. The production of an orchestral score is not only extremely expensive but extremely difficult. The copying of music is generally done by impecunious musicians who wish to add to their earnings. The comparative prosperity of orchestral players has greatly decreased the number of persons who are willing to accept this unpleasant, fatiguing, and badly-paid work. There is thus a shortage of copyists, and

(1) Cf. M. DAUBRESSE, *Le Musicien dans la société moderne*, published just before the war by *Le Monde Musical*.

women, who have less experience of orchestral work, do not copy as well as men. The engraving of music is equally difficult. The expense of producing an orchestral score is from 1,500 to 5,000 francs according to the size of the work. Such sums are of course almost beyond the reach of beginners. Mlle. Taillefer, who belongs to the Group of Six, has contracted a disease of the eyes by copying her own works.

The chief difficulty is that when the music has been copied there is very little demand for it. The public for symphony orchestras in large towns, and especially in towns such as Paris where concerts are held in the afternoon, is somewhat limited and changes very little. If each of the four large Paris orchestras performs a new composition once it is thought to have achieved a success. In spite of appearances music is still very little international in character, and it is rare for a work of this kind to be performed abroad. It must also be remembered that there are not more than about 50 large orchestras in the whole world which are capable of performing large-scale modern works. From this can be imagined what would be the cost of hiring an orchestral score to cover the expense of producing it. Such a price would be prohibitive. The position of symphony orchestras is everywhere extremely difficult. Even the largest orchestras hesitate not simply before purchasing or hiring orchestral scores but even before undertaking the expenses of transport of a score which is lent to them.

These various difficulties probably have some influence on the tendency of certain composers, especially those known as the "Six", to write very short pieces for orchestras of 15 to 20 performers only.

Orchestral music is, therefore, copied or published—when it is published, which is very rare and then only in the case of famous composers—not so much for the profits to be derived from the score itself as from the performing rights. These, however, are not large, especially now that most of the international contracts between companies for the collection of royalties have been terminated. Royalties for light music and dramatic music may perhaps bring in considerable sums. It is stated that M. Charpentier receives 100,000 francs a year in royalties on *Louise*. A clever musician may earn a good income by arranging fashionable dance music. On the other hand, *Pelléas et Mélisande* only brought Debussy 1,500 francs a year on an average, and royalties on orchestral music only form a negligible part of the income of a composer, even if he is well known.

There is one kind of musical composition on which no royalties whatever are collected, viz : church music. Families expend large sums on certain Catholic ceremonies, especially marriages, and it seems illogical that music should be the only part of these ceremonies for which nothing is paid. Organist and choirmasters are also extremely badly paid. The organist of one of the principal churches of Paris earns 300 francs a year for 80 attendances, and a choirmaster earns 3,000-4,000 francs for 500 attendances. The consequence is that few musicians are able to take up work of this kind even if they have a taste for it. The decrease in the composition of sacred music is not perhaps due entirely, as is sometimes thought, to a decrease in religious feeling, but at least partly to economic causes. No publisher can be found for works on which there are no royalties. Sacred music at the present time is copied in the same way as in the Middle Ages, and is passed on from hand to hand. It is stated that some French bishops realise the disadvantages of such methods and are prepared in principle to allow the collection of authors' royalties in their churches.

The question of copyright in all its forms is one of the main objects of the activity of the French Confederation of Intellectual Workers, which devoted several sessions of its first Congress to this subject. Musicians complain that they do not receive the same treatment in foreign countries as foreign musicians receive in France. In some countries copyright expires after 30 years instead of 50, and French musicians are therefore subject to competition even in France itself. The musicians consider that fees should be charged for the performances of works on which the copyright has expired—and possibly used for non-commercial or philanthropic purposes—so that dead composers should not subject living ones to disastrous competition.

One of the questions to which the musicians' representatives have drawn attention is that of the publishers' agreement. In many cases—one might almost say in most cases—the composer, in return for a fixed sum, transfers to his publisher the full property rights of his work, including the right of mechanical reproduction. The consequences of this are as follows :

(a) The composer derives no profit from the success of his work except the royalties on performance, which he shares with the publisher. The *Roses d'Ispahan* of Gabriel Fauré, which achieved an immense sale, were purchased by the publisher for 50 francs.

(b) The property rights of the work include the right not to publish or make use of it. In theory, a publisher could ruin a composer by purchasing all his works and pigeon-holing them. It may be said that it would not be in his interest to do so. This is no doubt true in most cases, but abuses have nevertheless occurred, and French musicians are extremely anxious that a standard publishing agreement should be instituted.

This would no doubt be a double-edged weapon. The composer contributes at least as much to the agreement as the publisher, and "intellectual capital" is as important as financial capital. The composer has, however, more interest in the agreement than the publisher, especially if he is a beginner. The publisher bears nearly the whole risk, as the work is generally already written. If the possibility of profit is too greatly decreased, and if too heavy a burden is imposed upon the publisher, the change will react on young composers who will no longer be able to find publishers.

Mention may be made of a last resource from which performers and composers may receive assistance, especially at the outset of their career, namely, the prizes and competitions which are very numerous in France. In addition to the *Prix de Rome*, which was established in 1803 and is competed for annually, the Académie des Beaux Arts offers about a dozen different prizes amounting roughly to 50,000 francs. There are also a prize of 10,000 francs given by the City of Paris, a competition held by the Music Composers' Association, and a Rubinstein competition which takes place once in five years and is open to all male artists without distinction of nationality; two prizes are offered of 5,000 francs each, to be awarded to composers and pianists respectively.

C. Concerted Music.

Paris has four large symphony orchestras, the Société du Conservatoire, and the Concerts Colonne, Lamoureux and Padeloup. These are real workers' co-operatives; the musicians elect their own conductor and share the profits among themselves. Their existence is of course made more difficult by the competition between them.

The share of the profits received by a performer in one of these orchestras varies from 1,700 to 2,200 francs for 120 periods of duty, *i.e.* 5 francs an hour on an average. This is very much lower than the rates fixed by the musicians' organisations, which would amount to 3,376 francs for the same amount of work. Members who have accomplished 25 years' service and attained the age of 55 are entitled to a pension which consist of a half-share in the profits. They are also entitled to free admittance to the concerts, but they seldom make use of this right.

Musicians consent to play in co-operative orchestras, in spite of the small earnings which such work brings in, for the sake of the prestige. Nevertheless a large number of performers leave the orchestra—15 or 20 a year, or about one-third of the total number—and it is difficult to replace them, especially those who play certain wind instruments.

Although the position of the orchestras is on the whole difficult, the individual musicians are very much better situated, as through organisation they have succeeded in obtaining conditions of work and salaries approximately corresponding to their aims. The principal

characteristics of the musical life of Paris follow as natural results from the difference between the position of orchestras and that of individual musicians.

It has already been stated that in the Teutonic countries orchestral performers are divided into several well-defined categories between which there is little interchange. Performers in theatrical orchestras do not play orchestral music, and members of symphony orchestras would consider it beneath their dignity to play in a dancing-hall. The difficulties under which German musicians are suffering are partly due to the fact that each one specialises in a particular kind of work from which he expects to derive his whole income. In Paris the position is entirely different. Specialisation is unknown. The entire musical activity of the capital is in the hands of three or four hundred musicians, perhaps even less. In the afternoon they play in the Colonne or Lamoureux orchestras or at the Conservatoire. In the evening they play for the Opera, the Opera Comique, or a large cinema; later on they play in a night club. In addition to that they also accept private engagements and give lessons. They refuse no kind of employment and send substitutes if they are unable to attend themselves.

Each of these various kinds of work is of course less strenuous than it would be in Germany. In the orchestra of the Opera there are often two men for one post or three men for two posts. Players in the Philharmonic Orchestra of Berlin play 21 times a week, including rehearsals, while members of the large Parisian orchestras only have 120 periods of service in the whole year, and these are spread over six months. Taking all their work into account, however, Paris musicians are as much overworked as their German colleagues and perhaps more so.

The consequences of this situation are various. In the first place, as has already been mentioned, symphony concerts are given in the afternoon, as the musicians are engaged in other work in the evenings. This produces an effect on the size of the audiences and the social classes to which they belong. Few audiences have more taste and more capacity to appreciate new music than the audiences of Paris; but they are small in number. Competent judges estimate that there are in Paris 3,000 or 4,000 persons really capable of appreciating and criticising performances of modern music. This is perhaps the cause of the apparently contradictory circumstance that good music does not reach all classes of the French nation, while on the other hand Paris is an exceptionally important centre of musical production.

In the second place, frequent complaints are heard that orchestral music is now hardly rehearsed at all and that this reacts upon the quality of the performance. The ability of the individual performers is as great or greater than ever; it is the total effect which is less satisfactory. This fact requires some explanation.

The co-operative orchestras, the Conservatoire, Colonne, Lamoureux, and Padeloup, generally hold three rehearsals in the week for two concerts with different programmes which are given on Thursday or Saturday and on Sunday. In view of the financial difficulties of the present time, however, they have begun to admit the public to one of their rehearsals. The Lamoureux orchestra began this practice, and the Société du Conservatoire and the Colonne orchestra followed its example. The performance really is a rehearsal in so far as the programme is that of the performances which are to follow. It is, however, of course impossible for the conductor to stop, to interrupt the music and to make comments in front of an audience in the same way as at a private rehearsal. In these circumstances, even if allowance is made for the fact that such highly skilled musicians do not need to rehearse classical music, and that they are perfectly competent to play modern music at sight without previous rehearsal, it must be admitted that it is extremely difficult to obtain a finished performance of an important new work. Another difficulty is that of the score, which has already been mentioned. The large orchestras are therefore adopting the practice of playing music they already know, to the great detriment of composers and the musical education of the public.

The number of rehearsals cannot be increased for several reasons. The first of these is that the musicians have other engagements and can only attend rehearsals at the usual hours. The second reason, which is still more important, is somewhat paradoxical in character: the more an orchestra rehearses, the less are its earnings, not only relatively but absolutely. The

reason for this is easy to see. The receipts are fixed and do not increase with the number of rehearsals. They are distributed among the members of the orchestra after the expenses have been deducted. The orchestras are always obliged to increase their number by a few performers who are not members of the co-operative and are paid at the rates fixed by the musicians' organisations. Each additional rehearsal thus represents a considerable expenditure which has to be deducted from the total receipts.

The orchestras in which the musicians are their own employers have few rehearsals, but those they have are regularly attended. In other cases the position is different. In the orchestra of the Opera there are more musicians than posts, and it is therefore usual to send a substitute. When a player has a private engagement there is of course no means whatever of preventing him from doing this. The orchestras which perform are rarely the same as those which rehearsed. This is, of course, not a new phenomenon. On one occasion, before the war, a somewhat lively incident occurred when M. Richard Strauss, who was conducting one of his own works and had taken some trouble to obtain a satisfactory result at the rehearsal, found on the night of the performance that he was conducting an orchestra which he had never seen before.

The musical life of Paris is thus characterised by this curious situation: a small number of successful musicians hold a large number of posts, and the other musicians act as their substitutes and are dependent on their goodwill. A close examination would in fact show that even among the musical proletariat there are employers and employed.

It is impossible in the present report to reproduce in detail the general schedule of minimum rates of pay drawn up by the Musicians' Association (*Chambre syndicale*) of the Paris district. The schedule contains so many categories and cases that it cannot even be summarised. It may be mentioned as an example that a performer in the orchestra of the Opera receives 10,500-12,500 francs a year, according to the nature of the part, for 260 performances plus the ordinary rehearsals. In operatic theatres of the second rank the salary is 705-750 francs per month; the engagement is for six months, and there are six paid holidays per month. In music-halls, the pay is 22 francs per performance and 15 francs per rehearsal in the daytime. The schedule contains a characteristic clause according to which all the rates of pay are to be increased 50 per cent in undertakings in which musicians are not allowed to send substitutes.

It is often stated that the schedules of pay fixed by the musicians' organisations are a cause of the insufficient number of rehearsals by the large orchestras, and that they react unfavourably on the artistic standard performances of large orchestral works to-day.

It is true that a concert with an orchestra costs from 15,000-20,000 francs. It is also true that certain institutions, such as the Schola Cantorum, which have to supplement their amateur orchestras with professionals, suffer from the high rates of pay. On the whole, however, the fixed rates of pay provide musicians with an income which corresponds to their requirements and probably has a favourable effect on the art of music by making it possible for musicians to undertake no more than they can do and to devote themselves entirely to the work in which they engage. "When the movement for organisation was first started," said one of its promoters, "we imagined that if the position of orchestral musicians were improved the art of music would benefit, and that musicians would be less overworked and less anxious about the future and would be able to devote themselves more entirely to music. We have been obliged to admit that we were wrong. No social change appears to have taken place among musicians, and most of them are more anxious to increase their incomes by accepting more work than to raise their standard. In the time when old Colonne, who was a tyrant, kept a firm hand on his musicians and made them rehearse as much as he thought fit, music was more carefully played than it is now when musicians take out their watches at five minutes to twelve and sometimes even at half-past eleven."

Orchestras in restaurants, cinemas, dancing-halls and night clubs are doing as well in Paris as in other countries at the present time. Their profession is essentially an international one, and there are a large number of foreign musicians.

The immigration policy of France is much less narrow than that of many other countries. The musicians' organisation in Paris has 919 foreign members, or about 14 per cent. of the

total membership of 6,123. Most of these foreign musicians play in small orchestras. They constitute a still larger proportion of the unorganised musicians, especially in the South of France; most of the musicians of the Côte d'Azur are Italians. The musicians' organisations have no strong objection to the competition of foreign musicians, as it does not result in depressing wages. Foreign musicians, especially jazz-band players, are generally paid much more than the trade-union rates. It is not uncommon for 1,000 francs a day to be paid for five or six musicians.

An association of ex-soldiers engaged in the musical profession has, however, been formed to combat foreign competition. It was at the proposal of this association that the Municipal Council of Paris decided, on April 10th, 1922, "to request the Prefect of the Seine to see that all undertakings holding concessions from the City of Paris apply the clause limiting the number of foreign workers to one-tenth of the total staff to musicians as well as to the rest of the staff." The musicians themselves admit, however, that this decision has not produced any practical result.

The same remark applies to the efforts made in regard to taxation. The report of the Committee of the Musicians' Association to the General Assembly on May 29th, 1922, contains the following passage : "Public entertainments, theatres, concerts, music-halls, cinemas, casinos, cafés, and restaurants where there is an orchestra, etc., are obliged to pay taxes and super-taxes which are not imposed upon any other branch of industry, heavily burdened as these already are.

"The *droit des pauvres*, war tax, luxury tax, municipal rates, etc., are mercilessly imposed upon these undertakings which are regarded as outcast, and will end by making their existence impossible."

In addition to the above-mentioned taxes, there are of course the individual taxes, such as the tax on wages, against which the musicians' organisations have repeatedly protested. The musicians consider that they are required to contribute a disproportionate amount to the exchequer of their country.

This branch of the musical profession appears to be menaced by another danger : that which arises from mechanical invention. Instruments intended to replace small orchestras have been invented and have attained a certain degree of perfection. They are still too expensive and too liable to get out of order to be generally used in cafés or cinemas. If, however, they should be improved, a large number of musicians would lose their livelihood. The struggle between human labour and machinery threatens to invade this sphere.

There is another form of concerted music of great importance in Great Britain and Germany which has not yet been mentioned in connection with France : choral music. It is curious that France should have so few large amateur mixed choirs, such as those which exist in most German and British towns. The town of Nantes has indeed, thanks to the work of Mme Le Maignen, instituted a choir of real merit. The Enfants de St. Denis are also highly spoken of. These, however, are isolated efforts which find no support in national tradition.

It is not only purely choral music which is lacking in France; it is impossible, or almost impossible, to perform a choral symphony. It is practically out of the question to perform music which requires both an orchestra and a choir, because the choir as well as the orchestra would have to consist of professionals who would have to be paid at trade-union rates. Even if the hall were entirely filled and high prices were charged for the seats, the receipts would certainly not cover the expenses.

Some people consider that the explanation of this fact is to be found in ecclesiastical conditions. In their opinion, the Catholic religion is not favourable to the development of mixed choirs, because women are not allowed to enter the choir of churches and women's voices are replaced by boys'. Ingenious as this explanation may be, it is not entirely convincing, as there are large amateur mixed choirs in such Catholic countries as Bavaria, Austria, and Catalonia. Other explanations which have been proposed are that the French temperament is less musical than that of other nations, or that the popular musical education is not of a nature to encourage a love of singing, or that the French are by temperament unwilling to submit to

the discipline necessary for a choir, or that the village musical clubs have hindered the development of choral singing. None of these explanations, however, seem entirely adequate. They are consequences rather than causes, and none of them explains the absence of the tradition which in other countries goes right back to the Middle Ages, and the lack of which exclude the French genius from one of the most important branches of musical life both in composition and in performance.

IX. — GREAT BRITAIN

Although this is not generally realised on the Continent, where an entirely erroneous idea of the British musical temperament prevails, Great Britain has ancient traditions of music, especially choral music, which go back at least to the sixteenth century.

During the last century there was a certain falling-off in the quality and still more in the originality of the music produced in England. Towards the conclusion of the nineteenth century, however, there was a revival, which first showed itself in the institution of the great choral Competitive Festivals in the North of England.

Even before the war, an English school of music had come into being and was developing. This was not, however, realised by the public. It was not until the outbreak of war that British public opinion developed an aversion to everything German, and the authorities became anxious to utilise the entire forces of the nation for propaganda both at home and abroad, that the British nation suddenly discovered that there was a group of talented composers in London, and indeed that there was such a thing as English music.

This discovery, which occurred at a time when the spirit of nationalism was on the alert, had an astonishing effect on the national taste. As soon as the first resistance or reserve of the public was overcome, music suddenly attained a place in the affections of the nation which can only be compared to the traditional love of sport. Teachers, composers, and performers were hardly able to satisfy the demand. There is perhaps no country in the world at the present time where so much music is performed as in Great Britain. The music performed is, of course, sometimes good and sometimes bad, for so violent a fashion necessarily leads to a certain amount of exaggeration. This state of affairs must be borne in mind if an accurate idea of the present position of British musicians is to be formed.

A. The Teaching of Music.

British educational methods may perhaps appear somewhat lacking in organisation as compared with Continental methods. Music is taught in the elementary schools by teachers who are frequently quite unqualified. Apart from this, private teaching plays a more important part than in any other country, and State provision for musical education is almost non-existent. There are conservatoires in England, but their connection with the Government is of the slenderest kind. The Royal Academy of Music and the Royal College of Music each receive a grant of £5,000. The Guildhall School of Music is maintained by the Corporation of the City of London, and other similar schools exist both in London and in the provinces. All these institutions are independent foundations. The Guildhall School of Music pays its professors by the lesson and merely acts as intermediary between the teachers and the pupils and provides premises. None of the principal schools give free training, and the fees are rather high—on an average £1 a week. The institutions in question do not make it their aim to encourage the spread of musical education among the nation as a whole. There are a large number of scholarships, especially in the two first-mentioned institutions. The Royal Academy gives no less than 118 scholarships and prizes. In accordance with the English system, these are granted not to the most necessitous but to the most successful students; some, indeed, are only given to candidates who can show that they have sufficient means to maintain them. Their purpose is artistic and not social, except in very rare instances.

In practice the training given by the above-mentioned conservatoires, except for certain special instruments, is not within reach of children of the working classes, especially if they live in the provinces. It has been calculated that 99 per cent. of the members of the Musicians' Union had only received private teaching. Many British students obtain their musical education on the Continent, especially at Brussels, where it is less expensive than in their own country.

The prevalence of private teaching results, curiously enough, in a large number of public diplomas. There are few countries where so many musicians are in possession of a diploma. The pupils of private teachers are merely required to appear before examining boards, which declare on payment of a somewhat high fee whether or not they are entitled to a diploma.

The professors of the Royal College of Music, the Royal Academy of Music, and the Guildhall School of Music examine thousands of pupils in this way every year. Examinations are held in the various towns and even in the Dominions—together in about 400 localities—and constitute one of the most important sources from which the institutions in question derive their funds. If the examining boards were always appointed by recognised institutions, there would be no objection to the system. It may even be thought that the complete independence of examiners who have never seen the candidates before and know nothing of them may constitute a guarantee of impartiality. Unfortunately, in Great Britain as elsewhere, abuses have arisen. The number of diplomas has increased and their value has depreciated, although they are still as expensive to obtain. Genuine pupils of good schools of music have in some cases been reduced to teaching music at a ridiculous fee through the competition of incompetent teachers bearing high-sounding titles.

Some attempts have been made in England to put an end to these practices, which constitute a fraud on the public as well as on the unfortunate persons who are induced to obtain expensive diplomas without real value. The Incorporated Society of Musicians, in agreement with the Teachers' Registration Council, has attempted to lay down the conditions to be required of any person intending to teach music. The Society proposes that only the Royal Academy and the Royal College of Music should have the right to confer diplomas. Up to the present, however, its efforts have produced no definite result.

The abuses which have been described above are less noticeable than they would be in a period when music was less prosperous, as at the present time there is room for even the lesser lights in the British musical world. It is stated that many girls, even among the poorer classes, have saved the money which they earned on war work in order to learn music. The schools are full and are obliged to refuse pupils. There are 2,700 in the Guildhall School, 800 in the Royal Academy and about the same number in the Royal College of Music. The increase in the number of students has not yet resulted in an increase in the number of teachers. In short, the period is an exceptionally favourable one, but in the nature of things cannot last long.

In the higher branches of music, methods of teaching have been so much improved that talented young musicians are no longer obliged, as they were in the past, to complete their studies on the Continent. Sittold, Vaughan Williams and Bax are pupils of the great English schools, but most of the composers of the present generation were taught by foreigners. Music is, however, becoming more and more British, both in composition and performance. The teaching of music, however, has not quite kept up with the development of public taste and the tendencies of composers, but is still dominated by older methods.

B. Solo Performers and Composers.

The position of soloists is much the same in London as in other capitals. Despite the relatively favourable position in general, there are many individual cases of great poverty. There are also, however, elements of prosperity which do not exist everywhere to the same extent. The British public is particularly fond of "ballads", which correspond fairly closely to what are called "Romances" in French. Although this taste is becoming less marked, the ballad concerts retain an extraordinary attraction for the British public; and ballad singers can be

almost sure of obtaining an audience. London audiences, partly because they are fond of music—music of all kinds—and partly because they are less *blasés*, less critical, and more catholic than Paris audiences, provide solo performers with opportunities and resources which they could not obtain elsewhere. A disadvantage naturally resulting from this, however, is that genuinely talented musicians have frequently to meet dangerous competition from mediocre performers.

Continental composers suffer from a lack of publishers to issue their works, orchestras to perform them, and a public to appreciate them. British composers have all these things.

In the first place, publishers are available. Before the war, British musical publishers specialised in two branches—the publication of ballads and choral music. These kinds of music were so immensely wide-spread in the country that a very high standard of achievement had been reached. In recent times British publishers have also taken up the publication on a large scale of orchestral music and instrumental pieces. The publication of works for large orchestras is difficult in England as in other countries, and for the same reasons. The expense of engraving music has trebled since 1914, and this rise is far in excess of the general increase in the cost of living. A small orchestral work costs £100, and a symphony may easily run to £300 or £400. Small orchestral scores and arrangements for single instruments, however, have a good sale, and now that the public is so fond of English music the publishers are able to make profits on it. Thus recently an event occurred which would be inconceivable at the present time in any European city but London. The works of a talented composer, Mr. Arnold Bax, were brought before the public by a publisher at his own expense.

Even in Great Britain such a procedure is the exception and not the rule. Although English composers are relatively well off in comparison with those of other countries, complaints nevertheless are not lacking, and it is stated that composers have frequently had to seek publishers abroad, for example, in Austria.

In the second place, British composers are able to find performers, and this means that they can also find audiences. The British public is extremely receptive. Perhaps its level of musical culture is not very high; it takes what is given to it, and enjoys it. So long as the programme includes a certain amount of classical music to which it is accustomed, the public gladly comes to hear new music. With a little advertising it is even possible to attract audiences to concerts devoted entirely to modern music, a thing which would be extremely difficult on the Continent. In short, the possibility of making modern music known is not limited by the ability of the public to absorb but by the ability of the orchestras to rehearse it.

It may be asked whether this means that British composers are favourably situated. Psychologically this is undoubtedly the case, and this partly explains the simultaneous appearance of so exceptional a group of talented young composers conferring lustre on British music, which was for a long time in a state of stagnation. Materially, however, the situation is less satisfactory, and the reasons for this are deserving of consideration.

The conception of artistic property, which is so deeply rooted on the Continent and particularly in France, has not yet thoroughly penetrated British mentality. The Act which established performing rights was only passed in 1911. The company for the collection of royalties, the Performing Rights Society, was only instituted in 1915, while the French Society of Musical Authors, Composers, and Publishers has existed since 1851.

If an institution of this kind is to work satisfactorily, it must be universal, or at any rate "water tight". If all composers, authors, and publishers belong to the society, as is practically the case in France, competition only comes into play between the members, and does not affect the operations of the society as a whole. If, however, as in Great Britain, the very principle of authors' rights is contested, if many composers and publishers refuse to join the society, and if in fact a rival society is in existence (Society of Authors, Playwrights, and Composers), then it is clear that there will be competition between the members of the two societies, and that this will react unfavourably on those composers who demand fees for the performance of their works.

The Incorporated Society of Authors, Playwrights, and Composers has 3,000 members, about 300 of whom are composers. Its purpose is to assist its members in the exercise and defence of their literary or artistic copyright. It gives them advice concerning the drawing up of their agreements and insures them against legal actions arising out of the exercise of their copyright and performing rights. This, however, is all that it does. It does not itself collect the fees to which its members are entitled, except in special cases. It is formally opposed to the methods of the Performing Rights Society, which collects royalties. If it were simply a case of rivalry between two institutions, it would be of no importance from the point of view of the present report. There is, however, a question of principle involved.

"We advise our members", said the secretary of the Incorporated Society of Authors, Playwrights, and Composers, "not to hand over their property rights and the control of the exercise of those rights to a third party (the Performing Rights Society). We do not see why the Performing Rights Society should hand over one-third of the royalties to the publishers, when according to some individual contracts they might receive more, and according to others nothing. The Performing Rights Society, organised as it is, may demand prohibitive royalties, to the disadvantage of the authors. In our view, the right of use implies the right not to use, and if a composer prefers publicity to profit, why should he be prevented from doing so?"

The last remark is illuminating. There are still a fair number of composers in England who prefer publicity to profit, and it is this which prevents the general application of the principle of intellectual property. This principle is, nevertheless, gaining ground. The membership of the Performing Rights Society is increasing every year. During the eight years for which it has existed, it has collected and distributed to its members a sum of £80,000, *i.e.* on an average £10,000 a year. It may be stated, for purposes of comparison, that the French Society of Musical Authors, Composers and Publishers distributed 9,084,812 francs among its members in the year 1920-1921. This Association, however, extends its activities to a number of countries. In the same year the Society of German Composers, in spite of the depreciation of the currency, only distributed a sum of 429,754 marks.

The legal position as regards publishers's agreements is the same in Great Britain as in France. Publishers generally purchase the full property rights of the works they publish; sometimes indeed they purchase the entire production of a composer for a certain number of years. The abuses complained of in Paris seem, however, to be less frequent in London. The public control of commercial book-keeping, which is one of the fundamental principles of business in Great Britain, makes it possible for the author to keep an eye on the publication and sale of his works. There do not appear to have been any cases in which a publisher has omitted to make use of his right of publication for the purpose of injuring the composer. What does occur is that some publishers neglect to publish a work until the composer has become famous by his own efforts. This practice is, however, everywhere prevalent and is difficult to avoid.

C. Concerted Music.

The prospects of employment for orchestral musicians in England are, in the words of one of their authorised representatives, splendid. This is not surprising in view of the fact that before the war there was a considerable proportion of German performers in London orchestras, and that there has been a sudden increase of interest in music among the British public. The last decade has been characterised by an extraordinary development of cinema orchestras, in which at the present time about 50 per cent of the members of musicians' unions are employed. The departure of the German musicians left vacancies which had to be filled; the number of concerts has increased, and although certain permanent operatic orchestras have ceased to exist, the number of vacancies exceeds the number of applicants for employment, despite the enormous number of women who entered the profession during the war. The profession of orchestral musician is one of the few in Great Britain in which there is practically no

unemployment at the present time, though this naturally does not mean that no musician is ever out of work.

In all places and circumstances there are, of course, individuals out of employment. The London season and the season of the watering-places overlap to a certain extent, and some seaside performers find it difficult to obtain posts in London in the winter and vice versa. This gives rise to a certain amount of seasonal unemployment, but this is decreasing as it is becoming increasingly customary for certain seaside resorts, such as Bournemouth, Hastings, Harrogate, and St. Leonards, to maintain an orchestra during the winter when nearly all Continental watering-places have reduced their orchestras.

It is natural that such good conditions of employment should have their effect on immigration and that large numbers of foreign musicians, particularly Germans, who are involved in many difficulties in their own country, and were accustomed to work in England before the war, should attempt to come back. The Government, in agreement with the musicians' organisations has issued extremely strict regulations, which practically amount to prohibition, on the subject.

It may appear surprising that a policy of exclusion should be maintained in a profession in which there is little unemployment. The British musicians realise, however, that large numbers of new performers are being attracted by the present period of prosperity, and the future situation causes them some anxiety. Their policy is, moreover, one generally adopted by the British trade unions.

The regulations have given rise to certain difficulties in practice. It is not always easy to distinguish between a famous soloist who comes to fulfil a definite engagement and an orchestral musician who secretly intends to settle in the country. It is still more difficult for the public authorities, which are not essentially concerned with musical questions, to decide which foreigners are specialists who are required by orchestras because their work could not be done by native musicians and those whose services are not indispensable.

This question arises in an acute form in connection with jazz-bands. Some employers state that no British musician can make a good jazz-band performer, and they give tangible evidence of their belief by paying negro performers two or three times the rates fixed by the musicians' organisations. The musicians, on the other hand, declare that in America a large number of jazz-band performers are British and that, in any case, most negroes cannot read music and cannot be employed except on their own particular kind of work.

The Ministry of Labour has in any case found it necessary to admit negro musicians, but permission is only given on two conditions: the negroes must be paid at higher rates than those fixed by the musicians' organisations; and an equal number of English performers must be employed side by side with them in the same bands for purposes of training.

In view of these favourable conditions of employment and thanks to their powerful trade-union organisation (the London branch has a membership of 5,000), the musicians have been able to improve their position considerably. The Musicians' Union has concluded a number of advantageous collective agreements, which are more or less generally applied. The collective agreements with the Theatrical Managers' Association and the Association of Entertainment Proprietors and Managers are the most important. In general, musicians have concluded agreements regulating hours of work, wages for a six-day week, for matinée and Sunday performances, and overtime, in respect of employment in theatres and music-halls. In theatres, cinemas, and music-halls the rates of pay vary in accordance with the locality and conditions of work from £2. 10s. to £4. 10s. per week for instrumentalists and from £5 to £7 for conductors.

These figures have recently been reduced considerably. The fall began towards the end of 1921, when the rates for 1922 were fixed. The decrease varies greatly in different places. In Sheffield it is 5 per cent of the previous rates, and in Birkenhead 3s. to 5s. per week. In Oldham the reduction was as much as 12s. 6d., and the salaries of musicians were reduced at a stroke from £4. 5s. to £3. 12s. 6d. In spite of these reductions, however, the general index number of musicians' salaries is over 200 (1914=100), while the cost-of-living index number is not more than 180.

All generalisations of this kind are of course approximate. The cost-of-living index number does not exactly represent the requirements of the musician. Certain items of expenditure which are essential for musicians, though they are of no importance for the conditions of life of the nation as a whole, have far more than doubled in price. This remark applies, for example, to musical instruments and accessories. Orchestral musicians are, moreover, involved in considerable supplementary expenditure owing to the existence of a double pitch. In the last twenty or thirty years the British pitch has shown a tendency to rise. This has resulted in a difference of pitch between the instruments of solo performers from foreign countries and British orchestras. Even British singers have found it difficult to follow their own orchestras, and the latter have been obliged to adopt the continental pitch (435 vibrations) for the performance of orchestral music. The military bands, some of the music halls, and even a few provincial theatres, on the other hand, have kept the British pitch. There are also organs in certain concert halls which have not had their pitch altered. The consequence is a certain degree of anarchy as regards pitch, and orchestral musicians when playing in different places are obliged to have two sets of instruments differently pitched. This, of course, involves considerable expenditure.

It is not so usual in England as in other countries to have permanent operatic orchestras. Nothing could be less suited to opera than the British temperament. While in France and Italy it frequently happens that orchestral music is performed by operatic orchestras, the reverse is often the case in England, where symphony orchestras occasionally play in theatres. Some cinemas have, however, constituted excellent permanent orchestras and they declare that good music attracts as large audiences as good films.

London has one large orchestra—the Queen's Hall Orchestra—the performers of which are employed by the firm of Chappell, and two co-operative orchestras: the London Symphony Orchestra and the Royal Albert Hall Orchestra. These orchestras are organised on approximately the same lines as those of Paris, but the London Symphony Orchestra is partly supported by the generosity of a private individual. This enables the performers to receive larger shares of the profits. Goossens' Orchestra, the Royal Philharmonic Orchestra, and the small London Chamber Orchestra are not permanent associations.

In the provinces there are permanent symphony orchestras in Manchester, Birmingham, Glasgow, and some seaside towns such as Bournemouth and St. Leonards. In other towns, orchestras and individual performers are engaged from London. Thus British musicians, though apparently less overworked than those of Berlin or Paris, are obliged to undertake many fatiguing journeys.

In London, as in Paris, symphony concerts are frequently held in the afternoon. For 10 weeks in the year, however (August to October), evening Promenade Concerts are held at the Queens' Hall six times a week with only three rehearsals a week. As the number of rehearsals is small, it is not possible to include very many modern works on the programme, but in the course of the 60 concerts the orchestra always performs 20 or 30 new works, and it is to these that the 30 rehearsals of the season are devoted.

The tickets for the Promenade Concerts are inexpensive. There are no seats on the floor of the hall and the audience remains standing. In principle the Promenade Concerts are intended for a popular audience, but, as a matter of fact, they principally attract the middle classes. The only really popular concerts are those of South Place, at which the most famous musicians of London perform for a fixed fee of one guinea.

There are as many complaints of insufficient rehearsal in London as in Paris, and for the same reasons. Orchestras are excessively expensive. Even if there is only one rehearsal, a concert costs £120. Each additional rehearsal costs from £50 to £60. The expenses of advertising are also extremely high, and the Queen's Hall must be filled if the gross receipts are to be £300.

Another difficulty in the way of rehearsing is that musicians are too busy; they seldom go to rehearsals except out of respect for energetic conductors such as Sir Henry Wood or Mr. Goossens. The practice of sending substitutes is even more prevalent than in Paris; it

is a regular institution and is the normal method of training young performers. The leaders of the musicians' organisations themselves deplore the practice, as they recognise the danger to the standard of performance which it constitutes. They declare, however, that they are powerless to put a stop to it. British musicians know that they have extraordinary skill in reading at sight. Among themselves they consider, as one of them stated, that "rehearsals are only necessary for the conductor". They thus naturally slip in to a practice which is of course in their material interest.

In these circumstances, in spite of the great receptivity of the public, it is difficult to obtain really careful performances of new music. This has given rise to the "small orchestra movement", which has greatly developed in England and has found its expression in the London Chamber Orchestra conducted by Mr. Anthony Bernard. The movement meets with a certain amount of resistance among the musicians themselves, although it seems likely to give them additional prestige and publicity. Some performers realise this, but many others regard a decrease in the number of performers as a danger, because performances by a smaller number of musicians require more effort and more individual ability than all orchestral musicians are able to provide.

The difficulty of rehearsing is particularly acute in joint performances by orchestras and choirs. The reason for this is a practical one. Musicians are generally engaged in the evening, while the choirs, which consist of amateurs, cannot attend in the daytime. This difficulty, which is inherent in the conditions of modern life, impedes the development of performances of this kind which are nevertheless an English speciality.

The real musical tradition of England is not so much orchestral as choral. In Yorkshire, in particular, choral compositions dating from the 16th century may be found. In the last 20 or 30 years these old traditions have been revived and have attained a new development. The Royal Choral Society in London consists of at least 800 singers, the Bach Choir has 250 members and the London Choral Society a similar number. There is also the Westminster Choral Society and many others. In the provinces every town has one or more choirs of considerable merit. Many industrial establishments have formed choral societies among their workers. These societies form a net-work which covers the whole country and brings every member of the community into touch with good music. The teaching of singing has indeed been entirely directed toward this end, to the detriment of solo singing. The art of singing is in a critical situation in Great Britain as in other countries, and few amateurs spend sufficient time in studying the subject. Many British singers are poor soloists, but the choirs composed of their united voices are admirable.

A spirit of emulation among the choral societies is maintained by musical festivals with competitions which were organised in turn in most of the principal towns of England. The first was held forty years ago at Stratford and the custom spread rapidly over the whole country from North to South. Nearly a hundred and fifty towns have held one or more such festivals. Before the war, the festivals were organised by the municipal authorities and were attended by mixed choirs from all over the country, including some large and famous choirs. Often a well-known composer was asked to write a choral work for the occasion. Few of these have survived; most of them were nothing more than occasional pieces. Some of them, however, are still performed, and it is to them that England owes its undoubted supremacy in music of this kind.

The choral competitions have only been resumed to a limited extent. Although some of the best modern composers, such as Holst and Vaughan Williams, conduct the choirs and have composed important choral works, other composers seem somewhat reluctant to write music which requires words and have specialised in instrumental chamber music. The result of this is that choral composition has not participated in the recent development of British music to the extent which might have been expected in view of the special musical traditions of the country.

X. — SWITZERLAND

The musical situation in Switzerland cannot be fully understood unless the combination of unity and diversity which characterises the country is borne in mind. The multiplicity of races and languages among its population, the presence of compact foreign colonies in some of its towns, the geographical proximity and the close personal relations which exist between the towns of Switzerland and certain foreign cities such as Paris, Munich, and Milan—all these factors tend to create and maintain a great degree of diversity in Switzerland itself.

At the same time, unity is ensured by the clearly defined geographical territory, by common historical and intellectual traditions, by the close relations which Swiss musicians maintain with one another through their organisation, and by the preponderant influence which was long exercised in the greater part of Switzerland by German music. This influence was due to the large number of German performers in Swiss orchestras, to the German conservatoires which received many Swiss pupils, and to the works of German composers. After the war the influence of Germany was, if not destroyed, at any rate greatly reduced. A large number of tours for the purpose of artistic propaganda have been undertaken, and the public has thus become accustomed to works with which it was formerly little acquainted. Now that a symphony orchestra has been instituted in French Switzerland, a wider choice of programme is possible. The number of German performers, especially in German Switzerland, has been reduced by the regulations restricting the movements of foreigners and by the action undertaken by the musicians' organisations. Again, present-day living conditions in Germany make the German conservatoires less attractive to foreign students.

The strength of the movement would probably be even greater if it received more encouragement from French educational policy, and if it were not so difficult for foreigners to obtain admission to educational institutions in France.

The economic situation, which has been so unfavourable to the nation as a whole, has affected music in various ways. The effect upon orchestral musicians has been serious, and there is a considerable amount of unemployment among them. Solo performers and composers, on the other hand, for the same reasons as in Great Britain, are comparatively well off, although here, as elsewhere, a prophet is not without honour save in his own country.

A. The Teaching of Music.

Elementary education in Switzerland is controlled by the Cantons. Music is not, as a rule, included in the curriculum, although in most Cantons the teaching of singing (especially choral singing) has been considerably developed. Although uniform curricula have not been adopted, attempts have been made by means of agreement between the Cantons to teach children the same songs in order to encourage a taste for choral singing. The results of the teaching of singing in elementary schools are of course unequal and depend to a large extent on the personal qualifications of the teachers. It undoubtedly contributes, however, towards the great development of choral singing among the Swiss population. Swiss universities give no instruction in the theory of music, nor do they give diplomas in this subject, as is done in some German, British, and American universities.

There are about thirty conservatoires and public schools of music in Switzerland. The schools are not conservatoires in the strict sense, although they are sometimes called so, as they hold no examinations either for admission or on leaving. They provide complete courses

of instruction for all persons who wish to receive them. This is in accordance with the Swiss educational system, in which large schools not open to the general public, such as exist in France, are unknown.

All these schools are controlled by private bodies. Some of them receive grants from the Cantons or municipal authorities, but these are very small and the schools have complete independence in their management, curriculum, and the appointment of their instructors.

The salaries paid to teachers vary a great deal but are generally low. Most of the conservatoires pay their teachers by the lesson. In the largest towns, such as Zurich, the teachers' salaries are calculated on the basis of those of the staff in the public secondary schools. Most teachers of music, however, receive much smaller salaries owing to the lack of pupils. In some cases, *e.g.* in Geneva, the staff is much too large for the actual requirements of the institution. The Geneva Conservatoire has about 30 teachers of the piano; the Paris Conservatoire has 4. The total number of teachers in the Geneva Conservatoire is 75, and the consequence is that many of them have hardly any pupils and earn extremely small sums. Some of the principal teachers, however, have fixed salaries.

As the conservatoires are private institutions, they of course charge fees. The fees at the Geneva Conservatoire vary from 100 to 800 francs a year according to grade. Not many scholarships are given. A considerable number of pupils have, however, been able to obtain a free musical education at Geneva in recent years owing to the generosity of a private individual who adopted this means of assisting both the institution and the individual students. The Swiss Musicians' Association also gives a certain number of scholarships of 500 to 1,000 francs. These scholarships, which are given on the results of an examination, are intended to enable the holder to complete his studies either in Switzerland or abroad.

The Swiss conservatoires do not specialise. Those of the larger towns at any rate give instruction in all instruments. Some of them also have orchestral classes, but these have not been greatly developed.

There has been a considerable decrease in the number of pupils in the last ten years, partly because a large number of foreigners left the country during the war and partly owing to the difficulties of the exchange rate. The number of Swiss students, which remained stationary up to the winter term 1923-1924, then began to decrease.

The diplomas issued by the Swiss conservatoires have not been brought into line with one another, and comparison between them is difficult. Some of them are of real value, others are of less importance. A stricter and more uniform method of examination would therefore seem desirable. None of them are sanctioned by the State, and, like the diplomas of the State schools, they do not entitle the holder to any particular post.

Reference must also be made to the Jaques-Dalcroze Institute at Geneva, which undertakes the training of teachers of Eurythmics. Owing to the presence of M. Jaques-Dalcroze, the institute has in some sense a world monopoly of this subject. The inventor of this method intended it to serve as a preparation for the study of music. Up to the present time, however, very few conservatoires have included it in their curricula, although mention may be made in this connection of the Basle, Zurich, and Winterthur Conservatoires.

The number of private teachers of music is considerable. This is due to several causes: in the first place, to the social composition of the population, which includes a large middle class; in the second place, to the decentralisation of musical education, which makes the conservatoires available to all students and, in the third place, to the fact that the instruction given by the conservatoires is sufficiently advanced to produce every year a large number of professionals, semi-professionals, and *soi-disant* professionals.

Since 1913 the fees charged for lessons have slightly increased, but the number of pupils has decreased owing to the economic depression. The position of private teachers of music is therefore somewhat precarious. They suffer extensively from unemployment, especially in summer. Among the musical institutions which provide instruction, it is also necessary to mention certain brass bands, particularly the Ondine and the Musique des Cadets in Geneva. In most towns there are bands of this kind, which accept youths and even children, to whom

they give sufficient free instruction in the playing of wind instruments to enable them to perform in a band. In some cases bands of this kind provide a very satisfactory training.

B. Solo Performers and Composers.

Although music teachers in Switzerland are feeling the effects of the economic crisis, public performers are in a better situation than their colleagues in other countries. Switzerland has no great capital, but intellectual and artistic life are extremely decentralised. There is intense musical activity in Geneva, Lausanne, Berne, Basle, and Zurich; other towns of less importance are also able to provide a sufficient audience for musical performances, and often quite small towns organise series of concerts during the winter.

Concerts do not of course constitute a profitable source of income for individual performers. The position in Switzerland is, however, better than in neighbouring countries. The organisation of a concert in a medium-sized hall in one of the larger towns costs from 400 to 800 francs. The price of the seats is so high that even if the hall is only half-full there may not be a deficit, while if it is filled considerable profits may be made. The system of issuing complimentary tickets has not yet been as generally adopted as in other countries. It is stated that a concert given in the Tonhalle of Zurich brought in a net profit of 22,000 francs. Such a figure would be almost inconceivable in any other town of the same size. However, this does not mean that the majority of concert-givers run no risk.

In these circumstances, Switzerland of course offers great attractions to foreign musicians. The police authorities in certain of the Cantons, which are the competent authorities in these matters, have, however, taken measures to prevent an invasion of foreign musicians. At Soleure, for example, at the request of the local bands, a German conductor was recently prohibited from giving more than three concerts in the town.

The position of composers is fairly good as far as the publication of their works is concerned. As regards their royalties, it is much less so. Switzerland has three music publishing firms, at Geneva, Lausanne, and Zurich. It so happens that these publishers have large stocks of paper. They generally have their engraving done in Germany or at any rate by German engravers, who work at the rates fixed by their own union. It is difficult to calculate what profits the Swiss publishers make by this system, as they pay in francs and their bills are subject to frequent and sudden fluctuations. For example, the rates fixed in Swiss francs on January 1st, 1923, were increased by the Music Engravers' Union of Leipzig by 50 per cent. on January 6th, 70 per cent. on February 1st, 80 per cent. on February 19th, 50 per cent. in April, and 25 per cent. on June 1st. This represents a total increase of 860 per cent. The element of stability which is so necessary to industry is thus entirely lacking. It must be assumed, however, that the rates fixed on January 1st provided the publishers with very large profits, since they were able to pay those fixed on June 1st.

Music published in Switzerland is not, however, as a general rule sold at higher prices there than in other countries. It is indeed sold in France at French prices.

The Swiss Musicians' Association devotes part of its funds to encouraging the publication of the works of Swiss composers. It assists the publication of orchestral works, chamber music, and piano pieces by giving the publisher a grant in order to enable him to purchase the work from the composer. As a rule, it has the music of German-Swiss composers published at Zurich, and those of French-Swiss composers at Geneva.

Except in the cases mentioned above, Swiss publishers rarely purchase works of any importance. They generally pay the composer a percentage on the profits; sometimes indeed the publisher and the composer have equal shares in the risks and profits of publication. The agreements usually lay down that the composer abandons all property rights in the work, including the rights of reproduction and arrangement, even for mechanical instruments. This, however, is a disputed point. Article 380 of the Federal Code of Obligations definitely forbids the publisher to refrain from publishing a work which has become his property. There is,

however, no means of preventing a publisher from only printing a very few copies of a work, neglecting to advertise it, and refusing to reprint it. Cases of this kind are rare, but have occasionally occurred.

Swiss publishers are not generally unwilling to have music engraved. They prefer this system to copying by hand, which is customary, for example, in Italy.

Swiss composers cannot complain of their reception by the public. The annual Festival of Swiss Musicians gives them an opportunity of becoming known, as the audiences are large and public interest considerable. Although the audiences are not strongly nationalist in feeling, especially in the towns, composers have opportunities of having their works performed. Most of the small towns have amateur orchestras; there are large numbers of choral societies in all the Cantons, and, in short, Swiss composers, in spite or perhaps because of the small size of the country, can count upon adequate publicity at home.

The less favourable side of the situation is that which relates to authors' rights. This question is complicated and unsatisfactory. A distinction must be made between the legal position and the position in practice. From the legal point of view, composers have up to the present been entitled to a fixed proportion of 2 per cent. of the receipts from the performance of their works. In most cases the percentage was extremely difficult to calculate, and still more difficult to check, as the composer was not entitled to prohibit the performance of his works but was entirely defenceless. This was a source of constant complaints on the part of foreign composers, who considered that their interests were injured by Swiss legislation.

A new Act, which came into force on July 1st, 1923, has now given the author the right to dispose of his works, *i.e.*, to authorise or prohibit their performance, and to fix the fee. Composers have thus obtained satisfaction on this point.

In practice, however, their position is not greatly improved. Up till 1912 there was no uniform system of collecting royalties in Switzerland. The Association of Musical Authors, Publishers and Composers of Paris collected royalties in western Switzerland, including the Canton of Berne; the *Genossenschaft deutscher Tonsetzer* collected them in northern and eastern Switzerland. In 1912 the Swiss Musicians' Association concluded a single agreement with the Paris society, which thenceforward collected royalties throughout Switzerland for Swiss as well as French composers. Swiss composers could, however, be members either of the French or of the German society, as the German society had formed a cartel with the French society, through which its members could receive their royalties.

The French Society of Authors, under the auspices of the Swiss Musicians' Association, concluded collective agreements with the Swiss hotel-keepers and with the Federal Association of Singers, which is the central organisation of the choral societies. These agreements were extremely moderate. For example, the total amount paid by all the choral societies of Switzerland was 1,400 francs, while the Zurich Tonhalle alone paid 2,000 francs under a special agreement. The collective agreements were, however, beneficial because they helped to make the collection of royalties customary. Previously, owing to the absence of satisfactory legislation, most concert organisers and societies had given little attention to the subject.

This system might have continued to work to the moral if not greatly to the material advantage of the composers if the war had not severed the connection between the French and German societies. When this took place, the Swiss composers belonging to the German association, who numbered about 20, ceased to receive royalties on the performance of their works in Switzerland, although the French society continued to collect the royalties in question. The repeated protests which were made were finally successful and the Society of Musical Authors, Publishers, and Composers agreed to pay the Swiss composers who belonged to the *Genossenschaft deutscher Tonsetzer* a lump sum of 1,200 French francs for the five years of the war. This amounted to 25 Swiss francs per composer or 5 francs a year; it was nothing more than a theoretical acknowledgment of their rights.

Efforts have since been made to restore the connection between the French and the German societies. This had almost been achieved when a new dispute broke out in Germany, where there were two rival societies which were unable to come to an agreement. The result is that,

although the new legislation is now coming into force, Swiss composers are no better off in practice. They do not receive their royalties unless they are members of the French society. The numberless village choral societies, which sometimes belong to cantonal federations but are not members of the Federal Association of Singers, and the cafés which have no contract with the Society of Musical Authors, Publishers and Composers, are not in practice made to pay any royalties.

It should also be remembered that in Switzerland copyright expires thirty years after the death of the author.

A special meeting took place on December 16th, 1923, with the object of forming a Swiss Authors' Rights Society. The plan is still under consideration.

Switzerland has only one orchestra which specialises in symphony concerts, the Orchestre de la Suisse Romande, which is a non-commercial association. During the winter it gives about 20 concerts in Geneva, 10 at Lausanne, and a few at Neuchâtel. These concerts are generally held in the evenings or on Sunday afternoons. A certain number of cheap seats are available, which has the effect of bringing orchestral music within the reach of all classes.

In German Switzerland orchestral music is performed by the theatre orchestras, which are specially enlarged and trained for the purpose. During the war, owing to the presence in the country of a large number of wealthy foreigners and also to the tours undertaken for propaganda purposes by orchestras and theatrical companies from the belligerent countries, musical interests in certain towns became very active, especially in German Switzerland. This period of prosperity came to an end owing, first, to the epidemic of 1918, during which public meetings were prohibited, and then to the fact that many foreigners left the country and the foreign exchanges became critical. From then onward Swiss orchestras have been passing through a very difficult period. In the month of June 1921 the Bernischer Orchesterverein convened at Olten a meeting of delegates from all the symphony orchestras of Switzerland; and it was decided to ask for a Federal subsidy for the assistance of the orchestras of Basle, Berne, Geneva, Lucerne, St. Gall, Winterthur, and Zurich. M. Lohner, deputy for Berne, supported by 60 of his colleagues, submitted the proposal to the Federal Council. The Federal Council expressed itself in agreement with the principle involved, but was unable, in view of the financial position, to fix a definite date at which the subsidy would become payable. It should be observed that the Federal Government grants a subsidy to the Swiss Musicians' Society amounting, since 1920, to 25,000 francs annually; as well as a sum of 10,000 francs to other societies whose object is to develop the taste for orchestral music.

C. Concerted Music.

The position of orchestral musicians in Switzerland is extremely variable. In this sphere there is more diversity than unity. There are five separate organisations, at Basle, Geneva, Lausanne, Lugano and Zurich. They are not united in a federation, although they are at present in negotiation with this object, but are affiliated to different foreign organisations. The consequence is that, in spite of the small size of the country, uniformity has not been introduced either in salaries or in conditions of work. The members of the Orchestre de la Suisse Romande have fixed contracts for six months in the year, with a salary of 400 to 500 francs a month (from 250 to 350 francs pre-war) and sometimes more. The musicians are on duty about ten times a week, and they are thus able to engage in other work. The relatively high salaries are due, in the first place, to the fact that the contract is of short duration and the musicians are thus exposed to a long period of seasonal unemployment and, in the second place, to the number of fatiguing journeys which they have to undertake. In view of the irregularity of these journeys, it is difficult for members of the orchestra to undertake any regular supplementary engagement.

In German Switzerland the pay of the musicians is lower, but the season is much longer. It lasts 11 months in Zurich, 10 in Basle, and 9 in Berne. In the smaller towns, such as St. Gall,

Winterthur, and Schaffhouse, symphony concerts are given by mixed orchestras of professionals and amateurs.

The orchestras of large towns cannot undertake tours, as they are generally on duty at the theatre every evening.

Salaries vary not only between French and German Switzerland, but also between one town and another. The Musicians' Union (*Syndicat des musiciens*)—the chief office of which is at Basle—has made repeated attempts to attain some degree of uniformity. It was found, however, that the existence of certain orchestras was endangered, and special arrangements had to be made in order to avoid increasing unemployment. Salaries have, as a general rule, increased by 50 to 60 per cent. since 1913. This proportion approximately corresponds to the increase in the cost of living.

In Geneva musicians in café orchestras earn from 450 to 750 francs a month according to the posts they hold and the size of the establishment. They are on duty twice a day for not more than 5 hours in all, and their engagements are for six months. They may send a substitute at their own expense once a week. Frequently, however, they are engaged for one performance only, and they then receive only 8 to 10 francs per performance.

Conditions of work are as various as salaries.

The only collective agreement which is known to exist is that concluded between the Cinema Musicians and the Basle Association of Cinema proprietors.

With the exception of the provision prohibiting the employment of musicians on the principal public holidays (Good Friday, Easter Sunday, Whitsunday, the *Jeûne Fédéral*, and Christmas Day), which applies to the whole of Switzerland, and certain holidays accorded to cinema musicians, no rest-days are provided for in the agreements for members of concert, theatre, hotel, or other orchestras.

There are hardly any regulations for the payment of pensions to members of orchestras. The large orchestras in Basle, Berne, and Zurich are the only ones having any regulations at all on the matter, and even those are wholly inadequate. Moreover, even in the towns mentioned the situation has of late years become very much worse. There is no special system of accident, sickness, and old age insurance in existence for musicians.

The musicians' organisations complain that conditions of work have deteriorated rather than improved since 1913, especially as regards holidays with pay. Conditions are, however, fairly good in the Orchestre de la Suisse Romande, which was set up after the war. They are less satisfactory in the orchestras of German Switzerland, which have to perform at the theatre every evening, and at the same time to prepare for their orchestral concerts. The most favourable contracts are, however, those of the musicians of the Grand-Théâtre of Geneva. These contracts provide for a limited number of rehearsals of fixed length, a weekly rest-day, and the payment of the full salary for a week in case of sickness. Holidays with pay are, however, unknown in Switzerland.

From the artistic point of view, the Orchestre de la Suisse Romande is also favourably situated, as the number of rehearsals held is considerable and can be increased if necessary.

Unemployment is the greatest danger to which Swiss musicians are exposed. Last year in the middle of the season, it was found possible to obtain a complete orchestra of 50 unemployed musicians in Geneva, many of whom were men of real capacity. There is still more unemployment during the summer, when the Orchestre de la Suisse Romande and the theatres are closed. Only a few of the discharged musicians find posts in the health resorts.

The prevalence of unemployment is due to the excessive number of musicians, the increasing competition of amateurs, and the decrease in the number of orchestras. This is a consequence of the economic depression, and particularly of the depression in the hotel trade. The musicians most seriously affected are players of wind instruments, which are tending more and more to disappear from café and hotel orchestras, and double basses. There is, however, a shortage of wind instruments in the higher branches, e.g., operatic and symphony orchestras, and foreign players have to be engaged.

The Swiss usually engage in the most highly skilled branch of any occupation, and in the musical profession they prefer the violin and the cello. There has, however, recently been an increase in the number of flute and clarinet players.

It is difficult to say whether unemployment is more prevalent among Swiss or foreign musicians. In theory the Swiss are in a privileged position, but foreign musicians are frequently brought into the country in view of their special qualifications, and can therefore readily find employment.

The number of foreign players varies considerably in the orchestras of the different towns. The estimates range from 40 per cent. of the total in Geneva and Basle, to 65 or 70 per cent. in Lausanne, Berne, Lucerne, St. Gall, and Zurich. The reason for this is that certain towns, such as Geneva, Basle and Lugano, are situated close to the frontier, and the cantonal authorities reserve the right to insist upon the *permis de séjour* within a range of 15 kilometers from the frontier. In small orchestras foreign players are in the majority. They are for the most part Germans, Italians, Belgians, though Austrian, French and Dutch are also found. These foreign musicians help to increase unemployment, especially in summer. In former times they used to return to their own countries between seasons. Now, however, they remain in the country for fear that if they leave it they might not be re-admitted; and frequently they successfully compete with native musicians for employment.

The Swiss musicians have repeatedly protested, though without much success, against the competition of the German military bands, especially the *Reichswehrmusik* of Constance. In Germany, as has already been stated, military bands are not allowed to play at less than trade-union rates.

This regulation does not, however, apply in foreign countries, and owing to the profit which they make on the exchange, German military bands are able to perform in Switzerland for extremely low fees. The Constance band seriously competes with the local orchestras of northern and eastern Switzerland.

The musicians' organisations are opposed in principle to the engagement of foreign musicians when there is unemployment in the country itself. Unfortunately, it is extremely difficult to define unemployment in this sphere. One violinist is not always a substitute for another violinist, or one harpist for another harpist.

In order to overcome this difficulty, and to put an end to the disputes between musicians and their employers, the musicians' organisation of Geneva has decided that one of its members should be present at the competitions for orchestral engagements, and that the orchestras should not be allowed to engage musicians of insufficient ability.

One of the aspects presented by the unemployment question is the almost complete disappearance of "independent" musicians, *i.e.*, those who earned a living without being members of any orchestra.

Brass bands are grouped in various cantonal federations and also under the Société fédérale de Musique. The Fédération des Musiques de la Suisse romande alone includes 123 bands.

In Geneva there are four bands which receive subsidies from the town or from the Government and which voluntarily impose military discipline upon themselves. Their members are amateurs, but the conductor and some of the leaders, who also act as instructors, are professionals. In the principal bands the conductor may earn as much as 700 francs a month or even more, while the leaders receive 50 to 100 francs. Since some of the German military bands have been dissolved, considerable numbers of their conductors have come to Switzerland. As the societies are entirely voluntary, it is impossible to speak of conditions of work. Discipline is, however, fairly strict and regular attendance at rehearsals, of which there are three a week for 11 months of the year, is expected.

The funds of these societies are provided by State grants and by the contributions of the members who do not play. Players can easily be obtained, because in many towns there are boys' brass bands which are at the same time schools of music, and organisations for preliminary military training. Boys can remain in these bands until the age of 17. The best players of course afterwards go on to the principal bands. There are other military bands in Switzerland

The choral societies, which are extremely numerous throughout Switzerland and particularly in German Switzerland, are organised in a similar way. Their central organisation is the Société fédérale de Chant, but they may also belong to numerous cantonal societies. Some of them reach an extremely high artistic standard and a spirit of emulation is maintained both among them and the brass bands, by frequent cantonal and Federal musical festivals. The Festspiele, which are one of the oldest national traditions, and the popular performance of the Jorat show how much can be accomplished by the voluntary co-operation of an entire population in a great artistic undertaking.

Nothing has so far been said concerning the Canton of Ticino, where the position is somewhat peculiar. The musicians who play in the hotels and cinemas of the Canton belong to the musicians' organisation of Milan, and most of them are Italians. There is also a good municipal brass band at Lugano. Moreover, popular musical societies in this district are very active.

A characteristic feature in Switzerland is the existence of powerful organisations, which collate and co-ordinate the efforts made in various parts of the country, thus taking the place of the geographical tie which is lacking, owing to the absence of a single capital.

The *Société Fédérale des orchestres*, founded in 1918, which receives a subsidy of 2,000 francs from the Confederation, places a quantity of musical literature at the disposal of its sections; it has concluded an agreement with the Society of Authors and Composers, under which its branches are allowed to perform the entire repertory of the Society in return for a modest payment of 4, 8, 13 or 20 francs annually, according to the size of the branch. It also organises an annual Federal orchestral meeting.

XI. — BULGARIA⁽¹⁾

I. *Conditions of Entry to the Profession.*

Elementary musical education is given in the State preparatory and secondary schools. At Sofia there is an official Academy of Music and a School of Music. There are private schools of music at Philippopoli, Varna, and Burgas. The Minister of Education grants scholarships and sends scholarship holders to complete their education in foreign countries.

Students on entering the schools of music are generally required to have an elementary knowledge of the instrument they wish to play and a good ear.

There are few orchestral concerts, but a considerable number of recitals are given by Bulgarian and foreign soloists. Those given by foreigners are generally the most appreciated. The principal towns have musical societies composed of amateurs and students of music.

II. *Employment and Unemployment.*

There is an employment agency attached to each section of the Musicians' Union.

There are a large number of unemployed musicians, generally 30 per cent. of the total number, and up to 50 per cent. during the winter, many orchestras having been reduced in number. In this respect the employers have followed the example of employers in Germany, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Switzerland, and other countries. This state of affairs is producing an extremely injurious effect on the musical life of the country and is increasing the amount of unemployment. Unemployment is particularly frequent among wind instrument players.

III. *Conditions of Life.*

The teachers of music in the high schools, the Academy and the School of Music, and the musicians who play in the official Theatre Orchestra, are paid according to the salary scales of State employees. Members of military bands are paid at army rates. The salaries of teachers of music in official institutions range from 1,200 to 2,200 levas a month according to the length of service. The performers in the Theatre Orchestra receive 1,500 to 3,000 levas a month. Military bandsmen receive 700 levas and an additional 500 levas cost-of-living allowance.

Musicians who play in cinemas, dancing-halls, music-halls, etc., receive from 60 to 110 levas a day.

The opera houses, which are only open for eight months in the year, pay their musicians 50 to 90 levas per day.

In the provinces musicians' salaries are 25 per cent. lower.

Fifteen per cent. of the musicians in the provinces are engaged in subsidiary occupations.

(1) Reply of the Bulgarian Professional Musicians' Union to the Questionnaire of the International Labour Office.

Amateur musicians and amateur orchestras often compete keenly with professional musicians, and thus increase unemployment.

Since the war the position of musicians has been extremely unsatisfactory, as their salaries have not been increased in proportion to the rapid rise in the cost of living.

IV. *Conditions of Work.*

There are no collective agreements, and there is not in practice any uniform regulation of conditions of work.

Musicians who are not employed by the State come under the legislation concerning workers' insurance.

The Professional Musicians' Union has instituted a "burial fund", which pays the dependents of a deceased member an allowance of 10 levas for every member of the Union (*i.e.*, a total of about 10,000 levas).

Thirty per cent. of the musicians are of foreign origin. They are generally poorly off, and they receive lower wages than native musicians because they are not organised. Most of these immigrant musicians are Russians. There is very little emigration among Bulgarian musicians.

V. *Miscellaneous.*

The musical profession in Bulgaria suffers from the following circumstances : (1) that many amateurs and unqualified teachers, who have neither the necessary training nor experience, give lessons and thus injure professionals; (2) that the authorities provide no economic or social protection for professional musicians.

The reforms desired are as follows : unorganised musicians should be prohibited from engaging in the profession; non-professional musicians should not be allowed to occupy official posts; foreign musicians should not be allowed to come into the country and to obtain engagements; non-professionals and amateurs should be prohibited from teaching music; members of military bands should be forbidden to depress salaries and to play in places where there are civilian orchestras; legislation regulating the position and protecting the interests of musicians should be adopted; an international office should be set up to regulate the position and conditions of work of musicians.

XII. — DENMARK⁽¹⁾

The National Federation of Danish Musicians, which includes the Orchestral Union of Copenhagen, is a federation of professional musicians covering the whole country. It has 74 town or district branches, and a total of 4,000 members.

I. *Conditions of Entry to the Profession.*

Besides the Royal Conservatoire of Music there are in Copenhagen a number of private schools of music, among others that of the composer, Louis Glass. The great majority of musicians, however, are taught privately.

There are a large number of private teachers of music; some of them are highly qualified, and others are unqualified. The latter constitute a numerous musical proletariat, and ruin the future of many young musicians by undertaking their instruction without possessing the necessary qualification for teaching.

It would be a very good thing if this activity, which is so injurious to the musical profession, could be stopped by legislation, for example, by requiring a certain standard of attainment as a condition for obtaining a licence to teach music.

There are both Government and private scholarships and bequests for the encouragement of the study of music.

The larger institutions as a rule require some preliminary training from applicants for admission. The fees which a musician has to pay for the same instruction vary very much. On a system of payment by the hour it may vary from 1 to 20 crowns per hour. Moreover, the total cost of a musician's training depends upon the time which he wishes to devote to his education. Unfortunately, he can terminate his course whenever he wishes. He is his own judge as to whether he is sufficiently competent to engage in his profession.

The National Federation of Danish Musicians requires applicants for membership to pass an entrance examination. This, however, is necessarily very lenient as otherwise a great number of musicians would remain outside the Federation and injure the musical profession by their activity. Legislation requiring a certain standard of knowledge to entitle anyone to enter the profession would be of great assistance to musicians, particularly from an educational point of view.

There are good opportunities for training in addition to actual instruction, for example, by means of orchestral schools and musical societies.

The capital required for a musician to complete his education varies between 10,000 and 20,000 crowns, but it must be remembered that imperfect training, such as that mentioned above, is naturally not so costly.

A number of private employment agencies exploit musicians shamelessly; in the interest of professional musicians, the Federation has had to oppose these very strongly. The National Federation has agencies under its own control, but it has to carry on a continuous struggle against the other offices and would be relieved if a stop were put to the work of private agencies by legislation, for example, by giving the musicians' own office a monopoly of such work.

(1) Reply of the National Federation of Danish Musicians to the questionnaire of the International Labour Office.

There is at present a great deal of unemployment among musicians in Denmark.

There is hardly any marked seasonal unemployment; in spite of theatrical and similar permanent winter engagements, there are generally fewer unemployed in the profession in summer than in winter. It is especially café and ball musicians who are affected by unemployment.

II. *Conditions of Life.*

Only the above-named royal Conservatoire of Music possesses permanent professors and teachers. Musicians in theatres (including operas, cinemas, etc.), and cafés are paid by the month, but, with the exception of the Royal Orchestra, are only paid for the part of the season or engagement during which they are actually at work. The Royal Orchestra is engaged at a yearly salary payable by the State; the members also receive a pension. Payment for other permanent engagements is about 300 to 400 crowns per month.

Only about one-third of the 4,000 members of the National Federation can be said to live exclusively by music.

Music is the principal means of livelihood for about half. The other half, which may thus be reckoned as amateur musicians, has no important influence on wages and working conditions. The 8-hour day Act has had no influence in this connection.

Conditions of life have not changed in any essential degree since 1913. The necessary increases in pay have taken place in accordance with periodical requirements.

III. *Conditions of Work.*

There are no administrative orders regulating the conditions of work for musicians. In various towns, particularly in Copenhagen, there are agreements with employers, for example for the theatres; generally they only contain stipulations as to the duration of the agreement, hours of work, rates of pay, and the like.

There are no regulations on the weekly rest-day, holidays, hygienic and safety regulations, etc. The only rules for the working conditions of musicians, who work almost exclusively in the evening and at night, hours of work and payment for rehearsals, are those established by the Federation.

No changes have taken place in this respect since 1913.

There are no welfare or provident organisations for musicians, except voluntary insurance schemes. There is an unemployment fund for musicians recognised by the State.

There are in Denmark a number, but not an excessively large one, of foreign musicians, some of whom are members of the National Federation and some not. The former work under precisely the same conditions as Danish musicians, while the latter must be considered as in competition with the artistic and economic interests of Danish musicians.

There is both emigration from and immigration into Denmark. Immigration has been restricted to a certain extent by the Government since the war in order to diminish unemployment. It has now, however, begun to increase. There is some emigration, but not much.

IV. *Miscellaneous.*

Among the most serious difficulties of musicians at the present time must naturally be reckoned the economic depression; but the position of musicians and the level of musical culture in this country would undoubtedly be considerably assisted in its progress by certain legal

provisions. We have already indicated some of these, but will give the following general résumé :

(a) An Act requiring a certain standard of knowledge for admission to the profession of music teacher.

(b) An Act establishing authorised employment agencies with a monopoly of this work under the control of the National Federation of Musicians.

(c) An Act requiring an examination for admission to the musical profession.

Legal regulation of immigration is very desirable and indeed necessary as, otherwise, a law such as is indicated above would be unjust to native musicians and, moreover, useless. It would be of practical importance that musicians should themselves, through their organisation, assist in the preparation of such regulations, which in view of the international relations of musicians do not affect merely the interests of a particular country.

(d) A standard working day.

(e) A weekly rest-day.

As regards the two last points, it should be explained that the Union of Scandinavian Musicians, which covers Denmark, Sweden, Norway and Finland, has approached the Governments of the respective countries with a view to obtaining legislation on these points.

A normal working day is obviously only of importance for certain classes of musicians, such as dance and cinema orchestras. The work of the latter, which often involves as much as nine hours' uninterrupted playing of a strenuous and nerve-racking kind, is in the highest degree injurious to health.

XIII. — SPAIN ¹⁾

I. *Conditions of Entry to the Profession.*

The only official institution for musical education at Madrid is the National Conservatoire of Music and Elocution. Some of the municipal schools have also started musical classes but only the Conservatoire can issue diplomas.

The State does not give travelling scholarships for music. The provincial authorities sometimes pay the expenses of musical students who wish to study abroad, but this is only done in isolated cases.

The available means of improvement include the two annual series of concerts given by the Philharmonic Society and the Symphony Society. Groups of professional musicians have also given concerts during the winter season in the last few years.

The expenditure required before a musician can earn his living cannot be definitely stated. At the Conservatoire this expenditure is not large as the fees are very low.

II. *Employment and Unemployment.*

The institutions which deal with the engagement of musicians are the General Association of Conductors, the Spanish Union of Concert Directors and Pianists, and the Society of Composers.

The first-named is the oldest. The Society of Composers was founded later in order to perform certain functions which the composers did not consider were adequately discharged by the Society of Authors. These functions were of an administrative character, connected with the collection of royalties. The differences of opinion among the composers belonging to the Society of Authors have been settled, and the Society of Composers which seceded from the Society of Authors does little actual work and exercises little influence on the professional conditions of performers.

In effect, the principal institutions undertaking to find engagements for musicians are the Association of Professors of Music and that of the conductors.

There are no statistics of unemployment among musicians in Spain. Less employment is available during the months of July to September, but few musicians are entirely without work.

III. *Conditions of Life.*

The only musicians who receive fixed salaries are the professors of the Conservatoire, the conductor and the instructors of the Municipal Band of Madrid and of the bands of the principal provincial towns, and a certain number of teachers in the municipal schools.

Very few musicians engage in any subsidiary occupation in order to support themselves. Most of those who do so are clerical employees. Amateurs exercise no influence on the position of professional musicians, nor has the introduction of the 8-hour Act.

(1) Reply of the Madrid Correspondent of the International Labour Office to the Questionnaire.

Since 1913 and in particular since 1918 the salaries of musicians have improved and their hours of work have been reduced. This progress has been accomplished partly as a result of the foundation of the Spanish Union of Concert Directors and Pianists, which has had a decisive influence in improving the situation of the entire musical profession.

IV. *Conditions of Work.*

There are no laws or regulations applying to the conditions of work of musicians.

Isolated collective agreements have been concluded with the concert organisers, etc., in accordance with rules laid down by the musicians' organisations. These agreements relate in particular to salaries and conditions of work.

Conditions of work are as a general rule uniform. There are no regulations concerning health and safety conditions or the weekly rest.

The only welfare institutions are the Relief Fund (*Montepio*), which has just been instituted by the Union of Concert Directors and Pianists and will soon begin its work, and a Welfare Section attached to the Society of Conductors.

The Society of Authors also has a benevolent fund, to which only operatic and dramatic authors are admitted.

There is no insurance system for providing musicians with a pension or indemnity on dismissal.

There are groups of foreign musicians who specialise in performances at café concerts. No restrictions are imposed on their work either by the authorities or by professional musicians. There is no emigration of musicians.

V. *Miscellaneous.*

All musicians, including conductors, teachers and pianists, consider that the most important reform to be desired is the introduction of a weekly rest-day and regulations concerning hygienic conditions in the premises where they work. The latter question has not yet been considered.

XIV. — NETHERLANDS ⁽¹⁾

I. *Conditions of Entry to the Profession.*

The following are the musical institutions in Holland : the Royal Conservatoire of Music at The Hague, the schools of music of the *Maatschappij tot bevordering der Toonkunst* in Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Haarlem, Deventer, Arnhem, Nijmegen, and Zutphen; municipal schools of music at Leeuwarden, Maastricht, and Hertogenbosch. There are also many private schools and teachers of music.

There is practically no provision for enabling students to complete their education abroad. The Government expends only 2,000 florins a year for this purpose.

The conditions of admission to schools of music vary considerably. The diplomas have only a theoretical value, and no legal advantages are attached to them.

The only employment agencies for musicians in Holland are private agencies. There is a considerable amount of unemployment throughout the year, but its exact extent cannot be gauged. It is estimated that about 15 per cent. of the total number of musicians are out of employment in the winter. This is the season during which unemployment is most prevalent. Musicians in small orchestras are principally affected, and there is also unemployment among operatic musicians in the summer ⁽²⁾.

II. *Conditions of Life.*

Teachers in conservatoires of music and orchestral musicians receive fixed salaries, which vary very considerably. Orchestral musicians receive from 1,100 to 2,500 florins a year, and in some cases as much as 3,500 florins.

There are very few musicians who engage in some other occupation unconnected with music, there are a great many amateurs who exercise a considerable effect on the amount of unemployment, especially among wind instrument players. They do not, however, appear to have any appreciable effect on salaries.

The 8-hour Act has increased the number of amateur orchestras which compete with professional musicians.

In addition to the changes which have occurred in the conditions of life of the community as a whole since 1913, it may be mentioned that the emigration of Dutch musicians has ceased and that there is now a considerable amount of immigration of foreign musicians.

(1) Summary of reply of the Nederlandsche Toonkunstenaarsbond Den Haag to the Questionnaire of the International Labour Office.

(2) In an article entitled « Le Chômage des Travailleurs intellectuels », written by M. Gerritsz for the report of the General Meeting of the International Association on Unemployment (Luxemburg, 1923), figures of unemployment among musicians in Holland are given as follows : at the end of 1922, 2,500 unemployed persons of Dutch nationality, of whom 600 were semi-professionals, and a further 350 unemployed foreign persons. The causes of unemployment are : reduction of the numerical strength of small orchestras, competition on the part of amateur musicians, influx of foreigners, and obstacles placed in the way of emigration.

III. *Conditions of Work.*

There are no laws, collective agreements, or special regulations relating to the conditions of work of musicians. Night work is the exception, and is always paid for separately.

The hours of work in cinemas are seven per day and eight on Sunday. The working day in cafés is seven hours. A weekly rest is only given in exceptional cases, and only members of permanent symphony orchestras are allowed holidays.

The conditions of work have improved since 1913, as salaries are higher and individual contracts are more favourable and generally contain provisions relating to rest periods.

Foreign musicians generally work under the same conditions as Dutch musicians. Considerably lower salaries are, however, sometimes paid to them in the frontier provinces.

IV. *Miscellaneous.*

The most serious economic evils from which musicians are at present suffering are unemployment, immigration of foreign musicians, the fact that they obtain engagements through private agencies, the absence of a weekly rest-day, and the difficult financial situation of orchestras and opera houses.

The following reforms are regarded as urgent, or at any rate desirable, by the Dutch musicians.

The introduction by law of a weekly rest-day.

Legal prohibition or regulation of private employment agencies.

An amendment to the legislation on artistic property, making the employer and not the paid musicians responsible for the payment of royalties.

The addition of penal clauses to the 8-hour Act making it an offence to exercise two occupations.

State subsidies for artistic undertakings.

Regulations of the immigration of foreign musicians.

XV. — PORTUGAL ¹

The following information deals only with musical activity in Lisbon and Oporto, as in other parts of the country it is so slight as to be almost non-existent.

I. *Conditions of Entry to the Profession.*

In Portugal there are only two official schools of music : the Lisbon Conservatoire and the Oporto Conservatoire. Musical teaching is, however, also given in high schools, in some of the State schools, and in a number of private educational institutions.

STATE INSTITUTIONS.

Lisbon Institute (Casa Pia)	}	Music, wind instruments, and choral singing.
Maria Pia Institute		
Caxias Reformatory	}	Music, string and wind instruments.
School for Wards of the Army		
Odivellas Institute (Girls)	}	Music and choral singing.
Military College		
Monicas Reformatory	}	Music, 1st year.
Higher elementary schools		
High schools		Music, 2nd and 5th years.

PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

Academy of Music	}	Music and all instruments.
St. Antonio Institute		
Modern Club	}	Music and choral singing.
Branco Rodrigues School (education of the blind)		
Feliciano de Castilhos School	}	Music, string and wind instruments.

All these institutions are at Lisbon. There are others, which teach music and choral singing, in other towns.

There are no scholarships for students to study music or complete their studies abroad. The Ministry of Education, however, allows a maintenance grant for this purpose to pupils of the Conservatoire who have distinguished themselves in composition, violin, 'cello, piano,

(1) Reply of the Portuguese Musicians' Association to the Questionnaire of the International Labour Office.

harp, and singing. These grants are allowed to three candidates only, and if there are a larger number of candidates in the five branches mentioned above a competition is held.

The conditions of admission and the fees vary very much.

Musicians have not many means of increasing their musical knowledge or ability. There are only three concert orchestras in the whole of Portugal : two at Lisbon and one at Oporto. There are 35 military bands. Only three—the Band of the Republican Guard in Lisbon, the Band of the Republican Guard in Oporto, and the Naval Band—are able to give public performances.

II. *Employment and Unemployment.*

There are no employment agencies for musicians.

There is seasonal unemployment in summer among players of wind instruments.

III. *Conditions of Life.*

The only musicians who have fixed salaries and are able to earn their living entirely by music are the professors of the Conservatoire, military bandsmen, teachers in the State schools and musicians employed in casinos. The remainder, almost two-thirds of the total, are obliged to engage in other occupations in order to earn a living.

A large number of amateurs compete with professional musicians. As music is only a subsidiary means of livelihood for them they are ready to perform at very low fees. They are the principal cause of the depression of wages and of unemployment.

The most important change in the conditions of life of musicians since 1913 is that their salaries have not increased in proportion to the continual rise in the cost of living. In particular, the cost of instruments, etc., is exorbitant. For example, an instrument which before the war cost 9 escudos now costs 150 or even 200. Some actually cost 25 times as much as before the war. A double bass string, which used to cost 1.50 escudo, now costs 36 escudos. This immense rise in price is due to the heavy Customs duties imposed by the State on musical instruments, which are treated as luxury articles. A similar rise has occurred in the cost of music.

IV. *Conditions of Work.*

There is no legislation in Portugal regulating the work of musicians. There are no agreements between the musicians and their employers except at the Opera and in two or three cinemas, or in the case of foreign musicians.

There are, in practice, certain rules concerning conditions of work, but they are constantly broken by the employers. For example, theatrical rehearsals are not supposed to last more than five hours, but they are sometimes continued for two, three, or even more hours in excess of that period. There is no weekly rest-day.

The only changes which have taken place since 1913 are that in the last few months musicians have succeeded in obtaining payment at the beginning of the theatrical season for rehearsals which, in previous times, were generally not paid for.

There is only one welfare institution for musicians : the *Montepio Filarmonico*, the purpose of which is to assist musicians in case of sickness or infirmity.

There are 35 foreign musicians in Lisbon. In most cases they receive higher salaries than native musicians.

The number of foreign musicians in Oporto cannot be definitely stated, but complaints of the competition of foreign musicians are sometimes received. Emigration is very rare.

V. *Organisation of the Profession.*

The only professional organisation in Portugal is the Portuguese Musicians' Association, which is affiliated to the International Musicians' Federation.

This Association includes musicians of all classes.

There are organisations of employers (*empresarios*), but they are of a secret character.

VI. *Miscellaneous.*

The most serious evils from which musicians suffer are the economic crisis and the lack of State protection.

The following reforms are necessary : regulations concerning hours of work, prohibition of the employment of foreigners to the detriment of native musicians, legislation imposing heavy taxation on amateur musicians not in possession of diplomas who make a living at the expense of properly qualified musicians or who compete with them unfairly.

XVI. — SWEDEN ⁽¹⁾

I. *Conditions of Entry to the Profession.*

The principal schools of music in Sweden are the Royal Conservatoire of Music, the military schools of music, and the orchestral school of the Gothenburg Orchestral Union. In addition there are also orchestral schools at Helsingborg, Gävle, and Norrköping, which have received State subsidies on condition that a certain number of pupils are given free instruction in the various instruments.

The following scholarships are in existence : the composers' scholarship provided by the Swedish Government, of a value of 25,000 kronor (this may be divided by the Conservatoire into awards of up to 3,000 kronor a year), intended as an encouragement and reward; the Jenny Lind scholarship of 5,000 kronor a year; and the Beskow scholarship of 1,800 kronor.

The diplomas awarded by the Swedish schools of music enable the recipients to obtain appointments as organists, choirmasters, music teachers in schools, and military bandmasters.

At Stockholm, in addition to the orchestra of the Royal Opera, there is a concert union, and there are also private musical societies both in the capital and in the provinces.

The training for orchestral musicians of some proficiency lasts five years in favourable circumstances, but for many musicians who play special instruments this period is extended to eight or ten years.

The cost of instruction may be estimated at approximately 2,400 kronor a year, exclusive of the cost instruments and music.

II. *Employment and Unemployment.*

Apart from a few private agencies which find employment for musicians, the Swedish Musicians' Union maintains employment exchanges at Stockholm, Gothenburg, Malmö, and Norrköping.

Large numbers of musicians are permanently unemployed. This is due to the fact that employers have cut down their orchestras as much as possible during the last three or four years. At the present time the average number of persons in restaurant or cinema orchestras is three-violonist, 'cellist, and pianist.

During the summer a large number of string performers are unemployed, as the majority of cinemas and theatres are closed at this season. Wind instrument players, however, suffer most from unemployment; this is due to the fact that they were the first to be discharged when restaurant and cinema orchestras were cut down and that wind instruments are not in demand during the winter.

As a general rule, orchestras containing wind instruments include at least seven of these, and as orchestras at present consist of three or at most five performers there is very little chance for players of wind instruments to find employment.

(1) Summary of the reply of the Svenska Musiker Förbundet to the Questionnaire of the International Labour Office

III. *Conditions of Life.*

There are approximately 2,000 orchestral musicians in Sweden, and of this number only those employed by the Royal Opera at Stockholm are in receipt of a fixed annual salary. All other musicians are engaged by the season only.

The winter season generally lasts for six or eight months, and the summer season for three. The five symphony orchestra associations have established a seven months' season, and no salaries are paid for the remaining five months of the year, during which period musicians may be without employment. Salary rates vary according to the class of performer; for concerts and orchestra associations, they are from 270 to 400 kronor a month; in cinemas from 270 to 450 kronor a month; and in restaurants from 240 to 460 kronor per month for four hours' work before midnight.

Approximately 15 per cent. of the musicians of some ability in Sweden belong to the army. These military bandsmen do not generally have permanent orchestral engagements, as they mainly play wind instruments.

The proportion of professional musicians who engage in other occupations may be estimated at 5 per cent.; it would therefore appear that at least 80 per cent. of Swedish musicians are entirely dependent on their profession.

Among musicians with permanent engagements, the proportion of amateurs is small; but there is considerable amateur competition for temporary engagements.

The introduction of the eight-hour day has in no way improved the working hours of musicians.

Before the war a large number of musicians were paid quite inadequately and constituted a real proletariat. During the last five years salaries have increased, but they cannot be said to correspond to the cost of living, even for the period during which musicians are actually employed. The cost and upkeep of instruments and accessories may be estimated at about 5 per cent. of monthly salaries.

IV. *Conditions of Work.*

There is no special legislation or administrative orders regulating the working conditions of musicians. With the exception of a few collective agreements between musicians and their employers, which are generally purely local, all engagements are made by individual agreements between the parties.

As a result of the formation of a Swedish Musicians' Union in 1917, uniform rules respecting musicians' conditions of work began to be adopted, among them those providing for a salary proportionate to hours of work, and for special rates for night work. At the request of the Union, several of the largest cinemas in Sweden now give their musicians two days' leave a month, but otherwise, with the exception of the members of the Royal Orchestra, musicians have no holidays. There are no regulations regarding hygiene or safety in the premises where musicians work, and as a matter of fact conditions are generally very bad.

Since 1913 minimum wages have been varied with the cost of living.

With the exception of the Swedish Musicians' Union, there are no institutions for the assistance or insurance of musicians, nor do they benefit by any system of insurance entitling them to a pension or unemployment relief.

On the outbreak of the war a large number of foreign musicians came to Sweden; this invasion continued after the cessation of hostilities, down to the present time, either openly or secretly. The total number of foreign musicians at present in the country may be estimated at about 800. Many musicians are attracted to Sweden by the abnormal exchange conditions,

and accept lower salaries than those normally prevailing; Swedish musicians are thereby subjected to unfair competition. These foreign musicians are also generally of inferior ability and tend to lower the general level of music.

Last year a deputation from the Swedish Musicians' Union presented a petition to the Government asking that severe measures should be taken to restrict the influx of foreign musicians. As the passport visa regulations had been rescinded, there had been a sudden increase in the number of foreign musicians entering Sweden. The Swedish musicians therefore asked that permission to enter Sweden should not be granted without previous consultation with the Royal Conservatoire of Music, and with the Musicians' Union, and that no foreign musician should be allowed to perform in public without special permission from the local police authorities (1).

So far there has been no emigration of musicians from Sweden, but the ruinous competition to which they are subject may soon have the effect of obliging many Swedish musicians to emigrate. Owing to the international character of music, ignorance of the language of the country constituting no obstacle to obtaining an engagement, members of this profession who are not protected by legislation or administrative regulations are exposed to great risks. This is not the case in other professions, where the fact that foreigners are generally unfamiliar with Swedish constitutes a protection against foreign competition.

V. *Miscellaneous.*

The most serious evils from which Swedish musicians at present suffer are the foreign invasion and the lack of protection against it; the absence of legislation on weekly rest, holidays, sickness insurance and, most of all, old age pensions.

(1) The Association of Musical Undertakings, which is the musical employers' federation, took steps to oppose this demand, stating that there is not a sufficient number of qualified musicians of Swedish nationality in the country.

XVII — CZECHOSLOVAKIA ⁽¹⁾

I. Conditions of Entry to the Profession.

Musical education is given in the following institutions : the Prague Conservatoire, the schools of music of Petschau, Pressnitz, Reichenberg, Krummau, Graslitz, and several others of less importance.

There are no institutions for the purpose of allowing students to obtain or complete their musical education abroad. The Musicians' Union, however, recognising the necessity of giving young musicians opportunities of continuing their education, adopted a resolution at its last congress according to which talented young musicians may receive or complete their training with well-known musicians at the expense of the Union.

The conditions of admission to musical schools vary. The fees range from 1,000 to 1,400 kronen a month. The value of the diplomas also varies, but is generally considerable as students on leaving the institutions in question can obtain posts corresponding to the tenth grade of municipal employees.

Most of the schools of music have orchestral classes, and concerts are given every year by the students and teachers.

The cost of training before a musician can earn his living is from 60,000 to 100,000 kronen.

II. Employment and Unemployment.

The only employment agencies for musicians in Czechoslovakia are those attached to the two unions, the Musicians' Union of Teplitz-Schœnau and the Unie csl. hudebníku at Prague. A few agents make half-hearted attempts to find engagements for musicians in cafés and bars, but the unions strongly oppose attempts of this kind as the agents try to obtain musicians at less than the fixed salary scales.

There has been a great deal of unemployment among musicians in Czechoslovakia since the economic depression began in the autumn of 1922. There is also a great deal of unemployment owing to the fact that musicians employed in theatres during the winter find no engagements for the summer, and that inversely musicians who were engaged to play in health resorts during the summer find no positions in the winter.

The extent of unemployment among musicians cannot be definitely stated as they do not receive State unemployment relief in Czechoslovakia.

The musicians who suffer most from unemployment are players of string and wind instruments.

III. Conditions of Life.

The only musicians who receive fixed salaries are professors at the conservatoires, teachers in schools of music, orchestral musicians in municipal establishments, such as orchestras of towns and health resorts (there are only a very few of these); one may also perhaps add orchestral musicians in general, if they play for theatres in the winter and obtain employment at health resorts immediately on the conclusion of the season.

(1) Extracts from the reply of the Musicians' Union (*Musikerverband*) of Teplitz-Schoenau (Czechoslovakia) to the Questionnaire of the International Labour Office.

The proportion of musicians who receive fixed salaries is very small, and does not represent more than one-tenth of the total number of orchestral musicians. All other musicians are obliged to add to their income in other ways if they are to maintain themselves at all.

The number of amateurs is very large in comparison with the number of professional musicians; there are perhaps twenty times as many. Many of the amateurs have spent their period of military service in the regimental band. They belong to all kinds of professions, but many of them are State officials and in some cases officials of extremely high rank. Their competition is disastrous for professional musicians as they have a fixed income and are therefore ready to perform for very small fees. In spite of the protests of professional musicians most of the cinemas engage amateur players, many of whom are State officials.

The conditions of life of musicians have deteriorated so greatly since 1913 that it is very difficult for an orchestral musician to maintain the same standard of living as an industrial worker of any kind. The salaries of musicians have as a general rule not risen to the same level as the wages of workers, and the employers are already making every effort to reduce them.

When it is remembered that a musician in order to exercise his profession must always be well-dressed and needs a large quantity of linen, that the cost of purchasing and maintaining an instrument is very great, and that most musicians have to be able to play two or even three instruments, which they must provide at their own cost, it will be realised that the musician has to meet extremely large expenses out of his slender income.

IV. *Conditions of Work.*

Up to the present practically nothing has been done for professional musicians in Czechoslovakia. The introduction of legislation instituting Chambers of Musicians has several times been proposed, but all such schemes have failed owing to the protests of the organised amateurs, *i.e.* of unauthorised persons. The daily press frequently reports discussions concerning legislation regulating the musical profession and the teaching of music and singing, but nothing definite is stated. The Musicians' Union has been making the greatest efforts for more than a year to convince the legislature of the necessity for legislation dealing with professional musicians. The Musicians' Union, in agreement with the Unie csl. hudebníku, submitted a draft Bill to the competent authorities, but this was dropped in view of the serious difficulties in the way of enforcing legislation of the kind. The draft was replaced by a provisional Bill dealing with nine or ten points, which is still under consideration. The Unie csl. hudebníku recently issued a leaflet giving an account of the unfavourable situation of musicians, which is an appeal for assistance from professional musicians to the public, the senators, and the deputies.

The theatres every year conclude collective agreements fixing hours of work, salaries, the provision to be made for musicians in case of sickness, and their insurance in the Pension Insurance Fund. As a general rule these agreements are well observed in the theatres. In other undertakings, such as cinemas, cafés, bars, etc., in which there are no collective agreements, the legal regulations concerning the insurance of musicians in the sickness insurance societies and the Pension Insurance Fund are not observed. It may indeed be said that these provisions are practically never observed and this is greatly to the disadvantage of the musicians.

So far as the conditions of work of musicians are concerned, the weekly rest-day is only compulsory in theatres; all other undertakings have so far succeeded in evading their obligations in this respect. Hygienic and safety conditions in the various establishments, though not actually bad, are not entirely satisfactory. Only a very few musicians who are employed throughout the year are entitled to holidays. Legally, employees engaged for six months as musicians frequently are entitled to holidays; the employers, however, absolutely refuse to allow holidays to musicians. Conditions in this respect were, of course, no better in 1913, as at that time there was no legislation on holidays.

As has already been stated, musicians are not entitled to State unemployment relief because they are regarded as seasonal workers. They strongly protest against this state of affairs.

There is no insurance system guaranteeing musicians a pension or even compensation on leaving their employment except the official Pension Insurance Fund, and most of the employers evade their obligation to insure their musicians with this fund.

The number of foreign musicians in Czechoslovakia is very small. Their conditions of work are the same as those of native musicians. There is at present very little emigration or immigration of musicians.

V. *Miscellaneous.*

Musicians suffer very seriously from the lack of interest of the municipal authorities, which refuse to institute municipal bands, although these would provide permanent employment for many musicians who are out of work.

The reform which musicians consider best calculated to give them real and speedy assistance is the adoption of legislation instituting Chambers of Musicians.

XVIII. — ARGENTINE ¹

The Argentine musicians' organisation includes all professional musicians from concert performers to street players. The following information refers in particular to orchestral musicians and to all other musicians who exercise their art as a serious profession after long study.

Professional musicians are mainly employed in theatres, symphony orchestras, and dancing-halls. The position of the orchestras known as *Criollas* is exceptional, as they consist entirely of amateurs who have never studied music.

Orchestral musicians must have studied for at least six or seven years before they are qualified as professionals. Stringed instruments are taught in a number of schools of music in the Argentine, but special instructors are necessary for wind instruments.

At the present time the majority of the orchestral musicians in Argentine are natives of the country, although a few years ago most of them were Italians. These professional musicians are principally engaged in playing operas in the large theatres and in giving symphony concerts. An increasing number of musicians are employed in cinemas, where they are well paid.

Orchestras of women are very popular.

There are a large number of musicians' organisations at Buenos Aires, but the most representative and important is the Association of Orchestral Musicians (*Asociacion del Profesorado Orquestral*), which was founded in 1894. This organisation has 1,200 members. The Association obtained recognition as a legal personality in 1919. It has a library and an employment agency, and the members also have a restaurant, a billiard-room, and other rooms. The funds of the Association amount to 222,794 pesos (²). Each member pays a contribution of 3 pesos per quarter. In 1922 the total contributions received amounted to 14,264 pesos. Its regulations have been approved by the Government.

The purpose of the Association is to protect its members in the exercise of their profession. It gives them financial assistance in the form of grants, allowances, and loans; it promotes their general culture and fosters a spirit of solidarity among them.

Although its headquarters are at Buenos Aires the Association is national, and indeed international in character. Its membership includes musicians employed in all parts of Argentine and in other countries of South America.

Candidates for membership must show that they have attained a certain level of musical ability, which is determined by a committee of members of the Association. Candidates pay an examination fee of 15 pesos and an entrance fee of 100 pesos. Conductors are also admitted to the Society and are not required to pass a preliminary test. The Association regulates the conclusion of contracts of employment, and its members are not allowed to give their services at lower rates than those which it has fixed. They may not compete with other members, and are not allowed to accept the post of another member who has been dismissed from an orchestra without just cause. These obligations undertaken by the members may, in some cases, involve the boycotting of an employer, and Government approval of the regulations relating to this point was only obtained with difficulty.

(1) Summary of an article in *La Vanguardia* on Argentine musicians and their professional organisations
(2) The peso is worth a little over 2 gold francs.

There is an "educational committee", which manages the library, publishes a review, organises lectures and concerts, and keeps the records. It organises symphony concerts, at which performances are given by an orchestra of 120 members of the Association.

1st violin	188.66 pesos a week
'Cello	128.20 »
“Concertino” (1st violin of a small orchestra).	105.00 »
Violin.	116.66 »
Flute	105.00 »

Other musicians are divided into two classes. In the Colon Theatre, which is the largest in Buenos Aires, the first class receives 77 pesos a week and the second 70.

		1st class	2nd class
Theatres where the price of seats is 4.50 pesos or under . .	59	pesos	55 pesos
» » 4.50 and over	62	»	58 »
» » 7.05 and over	65	»	61 »

There are special rates of pay for café musicians, who are paid according to the number of hours they work. There are the following four classes : (1) two hours' work a day, from 110 to 150 pesos per month; (2) from 3 to 8 hours' work a day, a maximum of 170-240 pesos and a minimum of 120-180 pesos; (3) two performances a day, making a total of 3 to 8 hours, a maximum of 200-270 pesos and a minimum of 160-210 pesos; (4) three performances per week of 3 to 8 hours a day, a maximum of 130-200 pesos and a minimum of 110-170 pesos.

XIX. — LATVIA ⁽¹⁾

The report of the Ministry of Labour for 1922 shows that great progress in the protection of workers has been made during the last year, and that conditions of work in Latvia have been improved by the regulation of the hours of work and wages of manual and intellectual workers.

There is, however, one group of workers which has been overlooked. It is uncertain whether they are to be regarded as manual or intellectual workers; their hours of work and wages are not regulated by law. The workers in question are orchestral musicians, especially those of the lower grades, such as performers in cinemas, circuses, etc.

All manual workers are entitled to a weekly rest-day, but musicians of the lower grades do not have a single day of rest throughout the year. Sundays and public holidays are the very days when they are required to work longer without payment for overtime. Their normal salaries are so small that they can hardly live on them. Musicians have to provide their own instruments, and this, particularly for violinists, often involves expenditure amounting to the whole of their daily pay. Musicians are also expected to be respectably clad.

They are paid by the day, and employers can, if they like, deduct pay for days when the musician was absent or sick. A musician is certain to receive no pay when sick if a substitute is engaged to replace him.

Although musicians of this category are so entirely dependent on their employers, they are well off as compared with those musicians who can only work on Saturdays and Sundays. A large number of musicians have come into the country from Russia and other countries. The foreign musicians constitute a large proportion of the total number of musicians and this results in serious disadvantages to Latvian musicians. The consequence of this state of affairs is that musicians are obliged to work for any pay that is offered. Some conductors try to obtain as much as possible from those who employ them and to pay their musicians as little as possible. Proprietors of undertakings in which orchestras play could put an end to this abuse by paying each member of the orchestra individually.

Up to the present musicians have no organisation, and this naturally reacts to their disadvantage.

At the beginning of January 1924, however, brass bandsmen held a Congress at Riga, when it was decided to form an association.

In particular, the Congress gave consideration to the complaints made by composers. The cost of publication is extremely high, and the collection of royalties is not protected by law, so that composers find it impossible to make a living. The Congress was informed, however, that the Ministry for War was prepared to encourage the publication of musical works.

(1) Information obtained from the Latvian Press.

XX. — CONCLUSION

At the conclusion of this enquiry it is desirable to indicate briefly the principal features of the information obtained for 18 different countries.

It would be useless to deny the partial and unequal character of the data given. Some of these were obtained by direct observation, others by means of correspondence, others again from the perusal of documents. The classes of workers covered, the questions formulated, either verbally or in writing, the statistics obtained, are not always comparable. An endeavour to arrive at a synthesis is always a difficult task, but in the present case it calls for special caution. We must beware of apparent analogies, which often arise from situations in fact fundamentally different, and of differences which are sometimes to be explained by deep-seated resemblances. With these reserves, however, we should be unfaithful to our object and to the essential character of this study if we did not endeavour from the mass of information presented to draw some conclusions and perhaps a suggestion for practical action.

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The present position of music and musicians is dominated in all countries, even those which were neutral, by the war and its economic consequences.

The war entailed certain consequences which are met with in various forms and degrees in all the countries under consideration. A decrease in saving, a reduction in the purchasing power of the middle classes, restriction of State expenditure, which often leads to reduction in public subsidies, all contribute to the difficulties of the musical world, where both performers and audiences were chiefly recruited among the classes which have suffered most from the war.

On the other hand, for reasons which are beyond the scope of this study but which cannot be ignored, the war has had another consequence favourable to music and musicians: the increased demand for entertainment. Performances of every kind, from the highest to the lowest level of art, have undergone a hitherto unparalleled development in many countries, and opportunities of employment for musicians have consequently increased.

Other results of the war are more limited, or have assumed different forms in different countries. The current of exchange of ideas has been deflected or even interrupted. For instance, the break-up of Russia and of the former Austro-Hungarian Empire has modified the musical relations of the various portions of these empires, to the disadvantage of Viennese composers, who have lost some of their markets, and of the orchestras, which now find it more difficult to recruit their personnel. The restoration of Poland as an independent State has had similar consequences. In neutral countries, the propaganda in art carried on by the belligerents for several years has not been without a certain influence on the public taste. In Great Britain the war led to a veritable musical renaissance. In Belgium musical relations with Germany have been almost entirely broken off. Finally, the fact that a certain number of Belgian composers left their country, and that relations between Belgium and the rest of the world were almost completely severed for several years, has had an undeniable influence on the present tendencies of musical composition in that country.

The most striking point in a study of these phenomena is the impossibility of making any absolute correlation between the economic impoverishment of certain countries and that of musicians. While it is true that in Germany, Hungary, and even Poland, the destruction of monetary values has placed musicians in a critical and often tragic position, this is not the case in Austria, where society has been transformed without losing its passion for its favourite art.

A similar process has taken place in Great Britain; the volume of unemployment in that country is notorious, but musicians are perhaps the only wage earners who have not been affected. Italian musicians, on the contrary, in a country where unemployment is not severe, are at present suffering acutely from unemployment.

Other factors intervene and balance the mechanical effects of the economic depression; the old-established and deep-seated musical traditions of Austria, the renaissance in musical taste in Great Britain and the crisis in operatic production in Italy.

Such divergences make comparison exceedingly difficult.

Switzerland is a decentralised and democratic country, in which music can penetrate by a thousand channels to the very lowest strata of the nation. France, its neighbour, is highly centralised; musical life is almost entirely concentrated in Paris, and only a very small section of the population is reached.

In Italy it may be said, with certain reserves, that the public taste is mainly for opera; in Great Britain, on the other hand, the taste for opera is almost entirely absent, a fact clearly shown by the absence of a regular opera season in London. It has been noted more than once that certain countries, such as Great Britain and the Netherlands, possess magnificent mixed choirs, whereas in others choral singing is practically unknown. Some districts, such as Hungary and the province of Liège, seem to be a school for violinists; others produce only players of wind instruments. At Berlin musicians specialise, and only do one kind of work, whereas in Paris a musician plays in cinemas, in co-operative orchestras, and at the Opera; he teaches, plays chamber music, and carries on all these forms of activity at once. Co-operative orchestras, managed by the performers themselves at their own risk, exist in France, Great Britain, Germany, Austria, and Hungary; there are none in Belgium, Switzerland, and Italy. It is often difficult to ascertain the reason for these differences, but omission to take them into account would lead to erroneous conclusions.

In a single country, although the different classes of musicians have similar interests, their general position is not always the same. In Belgium, for example, the position of orchestral musicians, who do not suffer from unemployment, is comparatively favourable, while that of composers is deplorable; in Switzerland the position is reversed. It is as difficult to describe in a phrase the position in any one country as it is to generalise from the facts noted in different countries with reference to any given class of musicians.

With all these reserves, however, it should be possible to sum up in the international sphere a few of the ideas which this enquiry has brought into prominence, as its main value lies in the possibility of making such comparisons.

A. Teaching.

Among the various classes of musicians, those who have undoubtedly suffered the most from present conditions are private teachers. They generally belong to the lower middle classes; in many countries they have lost all their savings; they have no salary which rises with the increase in the cost of living, nor do they own goods which automatically increase in value. They suffer doubly from the impoverishment of the middle classes: first, in their own persons and, secondly, through the fact that their pupils mainly belonged to the same class. They have generally been obliged to reduce the fees for their lessons or to increase them only by an infinitesimal amount in order to retain their pupils. In spite of this, however, the number of lessons has diminished, as many families can only afford to pay for one hour instead of two. Holidays, which are an absolutely slack season for teachers, are longer. Finally, competition has increased enormously owing to the influx of amateurs whose incomes have fallen and who seek to increase them by teaching music.

The crisis does not affect all teachers equally; in some countries the piano and singing are still taught extensively, but the number of students of stringed instruments has decreased, and there are none for wind instruments. But though all classes of teachers have not died out,

all have suffered severely; the extent of the crisis in all countries can be measured by the fact already mentioned, that even in Paris the greatest teachers are obliged to give public classes with paying pupils in order to earn their living.

The crisis is a double one; it is first one of quality. Pupils with a little talent now go to academies of music to train as professionals. Everyone wishes to earn his living by music. Good amateurs are becoming increasingly rare, while selection at every stage of musical training is less rigid.

This lowering of the standard of ability affects teachers as well as pupils, owing to the fact that they are obliged to work harder and to lower their standard of life, the low value of certain diplomas issued on easy terms by second-rate musical institutions, and the influx of half-trained amateurs into the profession.

It is to prevent abuses of this kind that music masters are demanding the creation of orders or guilds of musicians with power to grant or refuse the right to teach music. This demand has been put forward in Great Britain, Austria, Denmark, France, Italy, Poland, and Czechoslovakia. The idea of restricting access to the profession of music teacher, and of practically abolishing freedom to teach in this domain, is widely prevalent among musicians, but it is exceedingly difficult of realisation in the absence of any generally accepted criteria of ability.

The scarcity of talent is accompanied by a numerical shortage, the second aspect of the crisis, though the number of pupils at academies of music has not decreased. It is certainly surprising, in view of the students' difficulty in maintaining themselves, that the rush of young people to schools of arts and science has not diminished. But, as regards music, this fact does not prove that there are more students, but simply that there are more people wishing to become professionals; the increase in the number of pupils at academies of music is often accompanied, though not in Great Britain, by a corresponding decrease in the number of private pupils.

The extent of the crisis is no doubt largely due to the inadequacy of the facilities for training open to the poorer classes. Although instruction in conservatoires is free in many countries, pupils are only admitted after a fairly long preliminary training. The teaching of music in public elementary schools is negligible. Scholarships are generally small, and with the exception of the children of musicians, poor children have practically no means of developing their musical talent. The only important exception is Belgium, where there are a large number of free communal schools of music which place musical training within the reach of the people.

In consequence, in most countries music is a privileged art, only open to the children of the well-to-do classes, and it has therefore suffered severely from the shifting of social classes at the present time. The result would perhaps have been different if larger sections of the population had been open to musical influences, as the experience of Vienna would suggest.

B. Solo Performers and Composers.

It is undeniable that music teachers are everywhere suffering severely; it is more difficult to measure the effects of the prevailing depression on composers and solo performers. Musicians of this kind were never, even before the war, able to earn their living entirely by their art; they were always obliged to supplement their income by teaching or by playing in orchestras. The changes in their income in this respect have therefore affected their supplementary earnings and not their actual livelihood.

There is no doubt, however, that conditions have become much worse. Solo performers cannot support themselves without the help of patrons; but private patronage has naturally diminished owing to the disturbance and insecurity of private incomes. State assistance has decreased in amount and effect through the reduction of grants to orchestras or theatres, while at the same time taxation has increased. As already noted, it is not a rare thing for musical institutions to pay as much in taxation as they receive in State grants, and many even pay considerable sums while receiving nothing. Musicians are subject to all the ordinary forms of

taxation, and in addition contribute indirectly through the various entertainment taxes and the *droit des pauvres*, which add considerably to their expenses.

As regards music publishing, there has been a movement towards concentration during the last few years. The risk involved in publishing modern works and the financial resources required have caused the disappearance of a number of smaller firms and the concentration of music publishing in the hands of a few large firms in a few countries.

The cost of paper and engraving has increased very considerably, and in many countries the cost of publication is so high as to make selling prices prohibitive. As a general rule publishers lose on modern music and only make profits on classical works. There is thus a kind of compensation by which dead composers to some extent assist living ones, but the latter are naturally sacrificed, particularly composers of orchestral music. The total number of large orchestras throughout the world is not sufficient for orchestral scores to be published under present conditions on a commercial basis. The publication of orchestral music nearly always involves publishers in risks, and it may well be imagined that they will only incur such risks with caution and consideration. Composers are anxious to introduce a standard agreement which would be more favourable to them and more exacting to publishers; it may be questioned, however, whether the present time, when it is to the interest of many publishers not to publish modern music, is well chosen for such action.

As regards the performance of music, there are difficulties of two kinds. The financial difficulty is that takings, which were insufficient even before the war, have only increased slightly; the increase in the price of seats is not equal to that in the cost of living. Expenditure, on the contrary, has increased considerably. The cost of scores and instruments and of rehearsals at trade-union rates make the performance of new works much more expensive than that of classical ones. The second difficulty is that the public does not particularly care for new music. In this respect there is a great difference between orchestral and operatic music. Theatre audiences generally prefer to hear something new, while the concert public, on the other hand, especially prefers music with which it is already familiar. The public taste adapts itself to new conditions more slowly in music than in the other arts, and it is everywhere noted that concerts devoted to modern music do not pay.

The question of royalties has very different aspects in different countries. While in France, for example, thanks to the energetic action of the Society of Authors, an old-established body, the principle is no longer questioned, it has been the subject of violent struggles in Great Britain, as has been shown; in Italy, publishers themselves are not in favour of the royalty system. In some countries, such as Germany and Austria, there are several societies for the collection of royalties, while other countries, for example, Belgium and Switzerland, have no national society of this kind, and have to depend on the French Society of Authors for the collection and payment of royalties. The system described in Austria, under which composers and performers work together for the collection of royalties, is perhaps the most elaborate, but it has not yet been imitated in other countries; Dutch musicians, for instance, have expressed the desire to be freed by legislation from any responsibility for the collection of royalties.

Moreover, the economic disturbances due to the war have resulted in a marked decrease in the royalties collected, not perhaps in nominal value, but as compared with the cost of living.

Mention should be made of the special position of sacred music. The salaries of organists and choir-masters have remained far behind those of other classes of musicians. No publishers can now be found for church music, for no royalties are payable in respect of it; the result is that musicians who compose music of this nature can only do so if they expect no financial return, and this is doubtless one of the chief causes of the decadence of the composition of sacred music at the present time.

C. Concerted Music.

Orchestral musicians, who consider themselves more akin to manual than to intellectual workers, have on the whole suffered least. As they are accustomed to work together, they

have developed habits of discipline and solidarity, and thus have been able to create trade-union organisations in which excellent discipline is maintained and which comprise nearly all the members of the profession. Practically, the only exception to this rule is in Switzerland. Musicians have used the strength of their position to improve their lot to a certain extent, and this may explain the fact that, as a whole, musicians have probably suffered less from present conditions than other classes of workers. There is a tendency nevertheless to exaggerate the advantages of their position; it is no better than before the war, and although salaries have considerably increased they are not always commensurate with the increase in the cost of living, and have only exceeded it in rare instances. In many countries the position of musicians is extremely precarious. If there has been a general improvement in the lot of orchestral musicians, it is less in wages and conditions of living than in conditions of work.

It must also be fairly noted that this improvement has not generally reacted on the musical ability of performers; the number of players who have devoted their increased leisure to perfecting themselves in the practice of their art is not as great as might have been hoped. On the other hand, economic conditions have led to an influx of women in orchestras, and although the consequences of this phenomenon have been variously interpreted, it is generally agreed that women lack the necessary physical strength to play certain instruments.

Among the evils from which orchestral musicians most frequently suffer, the following may be mentioned :

(1) *Inadequate Wages.*

A large number of examples from various countries have already been quoted showing how much salaries have fallen in comparison with the cost of living in countries with a depreciated currency.

To measure correctly musicians' salaries, which are often lower than the wages of unskilled labourers, it should be remembered that long and costly training is required for the musical profession. Secondly, it entails unavoidable expenditure for clothing, upkeep of instruments, and scores, from which manual workers are exempt. Thirdly, the work of orchestral musicians is often, and even generally, night work. Finally, this profession, as will be shown, is very liable to seasonal unemployment. All these factors considerably reduce the apparent value of the wages earned. On the other hand, it is only fair to point out that orchestral musicians can supplement their incomes to some extent by teaching, chamber concerts, and also, but more rarely, by recording for the gramophone and by wireless concerts; but these are quite exceptional and the majority of musicians, particularly players of wind instruments, are entirely dependent on their professional earnings.

(2) *Unemployment.*

The extent of unemployment among musicians varies considerably in different countries; it is not great in Austria, Great Britain, Belgium, France, or Hungary, but in other countries, particularly Germany, Denmark, Bulgaria, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Sweden, and Czechoslovakia, there are great complaints of widespread unemployment among musicians. Seasonal unemployment is a phenomenon of general occurrence, due to the fact that many musical undertakings only give performances during a certain period of the year and that there is a considerable interval between the winter and summer seasons.

Partial unemployment, the extent of which it is difficult to determine, also exists, being due to the fact that certain classes of musicians are not employed to the limit of their capacity. The various classes of instrumentalists are affected very differently by unemployment in the different countries; in some there is a plethora of wind instruments, in others—which is more frequently the case—of stringed instruments.

The relative decrease in salaries and partial or total unemployment are the two signs of the very keen competition to which professional musicians are exposed from foreigners, amateurs, and, in certain countries, military bandsmen.

Professional musicians are endeavouring to defend themselves against the competition of amateurs by opposing the issue of worthless diplomas and demanding the creation of musicians' guilds to test and judge the capacities of persons entering the musical profession. The amateur competition most feared is that of government officials.

Orchestral musicians are often subject to keen competition from military bands, which they endeavour to prevent either by enrolling military bandsmen in their own trade unions, when army regulations allow it, or by inducing the Government to make strict rules preventing military bandsmen from accepting private engagements at less than trade-union rates.

In several countries, finally, musicians endeavour to oppose the immigration of foreign performers, to which they attribute most of their difficulties.

In this respect countries may be divided into three classes. In the first class are those which have a large number of native musicians and therefore gain by encouraging emigration. These countries generally abstain from closing their own frontiers, in order to avoid provoking reprisals against their own musicians in other countries. This is the case, for example, in Germany, Austria, Belgium, Hungary and Italy.

There are, secondly, certain countries which stand in need of the aid of foreign musicians and which desire to prevent their entry all the less because conditions are not favourable to immigration and it does not assume any very large proportions. In this class are Bulgaria, Poland, Czechoslovakia and, to some extent, France.

Finally, a certain number of countries are obliged to defend themselves against immigration, which tends to depress the labour conditions of native musicians. In Great Britain, the Netherlands, Sweden, Finland, and Switzerland musicians insist that the Government shall adopt restrictive measures against immigration. Employers, on the other hand, demand that foreign musicians shall be allowed to enter as freely as possible, with a view to improving the artistic standard of orchestras.

While the living conditions of musicians have generally changed for the worse, or at best have remained stationary, conditions of work, as was shown, have generally improved in comparison with those prevailing in 1913. A certain number of collective agreements have been concluded, although the system has not yet become general, and in nearly every case the length of rehearsals, which was formerly unlimited, has been fixed by these agreements.

But the situation is still very bad as regards the weekly rest-day, the number of musicians who can count upon a regular rest-day being very small. The same applies, except in a few large theatre orchestras, to holidays, and seasonal unemployment generally takes the place of holidays. Musicians also complain that they belong to an intermediate class of workers who are not protected by labour legislation and do not benefit by the customs favourable to intellectual workers. Musicians are generally not covered by insurance and pension legislation. They are not subject to compulsory State insurance and have been obliged to establish funds of their own; these are not very extensive and in some countries have been ruined by currency depreciation.

Conditions of work among musicians have been shown to be favourable to trade unionism; there are a large number of musicians' unions in all countries. Apart from the unions, there are co-operative associations in Germany, Austria, France, and Great Britain; these often provide the best orchestras in the chief towns. In Switzerland several co-operative musical organisations enable musicians in a highly decentralised country to keep in touch.

A last question should be noted—that of mechanical instruments. It arises in three forms.

1. The adaptation of the works of modern composers for performance on gramophones or musical boxes may injure composers financially and artistically, if they are not protected by their agreements.

2. The enormous development of wireless telephony, which enables millions to hear music performed in a concert hall, may affect both composers and performers; it will doubtless entail a reform of the existing system of royalties and also perhaps of the trade-union rates for performers.

3. Possible inventions by which small orchestras could be satisfactorily replaced by a single instrument might introduce a very serious form of competition with the musicians.

D. The Demands of Musicians.

At the conclusion of this study it would seem desirable to sum up the needs and wishes of musicians, as shown by the replies to its questionnaire received by the International Labour Office.

(a) General Questions.

German, Bulgarian, Latvian, and Polish musicians complain that they have no definite legal status in their relations with their employers, and demand that the law shall define clearly whether they are to benefit under labour legislation or are to be regarded as intellectual workers.

Austrian, British, Danish, Italian, Polish, and Czechoslovak musicians ask for the establishment of musicians' guilds, empowered to make regulations for their profession. Similarly, Austrian, Bulgarian, Danish, French, and Italian musicians ask that the conditions of musical teaching shall be regulated with a view to preventing unqualified persons from competing with the real teachers of music and thus lowering the artistic standard of the profession. Danish musicians even demand that the right to enter the musical profession shall be made conditional on the passing of an examination held by the public authorities.

Finally, Bulgarian musicians demand that an international office for the protection of musicians shall be set up.

(b) Employment and Unemployment.

In Denmark and the Netherlands musicians demand that employment exchanges shall be made a monopoly either of the State or of musicians' organisations, so that musicians may escape the disadvantages of commercial employment agencies. Bulgarian and Portuguese musicians demand that amateurs shall be prohibited from entering the musical profession. In the Netherlands musicians ask that provisions shall be embodied in the Act on hours of work prohibiting workers from competing with musicians during the spare time they enjoy as a result of the eight-hour day. Bulgarian and Polish musicians ask for protection against the competition of military bands. Finally, in Great Britain, Bulgaria, Denmark, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, and Switzerland musicians ask for restrictions on immigration.

(c) Conditions of Work.

The demand the most generally made is for a regular weekly rest-day; this is advanced by musicians in Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Finland, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, and Sweden. Requests have been put forward for the introduction of an Act on hours of work in the musical profession in Denmark, Finland, Norway, Portugal, and Sweden, and in Spain for the issue of regulations on hygienic conditions in premises in which musicians work. Swedish and Polish musicians ask that they shall be included in the social insurance system.

(d) Miscellaneous.

Dutch and Polish musicians ask for legislation concerning royalties, which, while favourable to composers, would exempt orchestral musicians from responsibility for the collection of royalties. Portuguese musicians ask for reduction of taxation. Finally, in the Netherlands, Poland, Switzerland and Czechoslovakia the necessity for increased State grants in aid of music is urged.

These desiderata, it will be noted, are often divergent and sometimes contradictory. Many countries emphasise the need for closer international relations, and in Great Britain the creation of an international publishing office and an international office for the exchange of musicians has been mooted. This proposal meets the wishes of musicians in most of the countries with depreciated currencies, who are barely able to live in their own countries and wish to be able to leave them. Elsewhere, on the other hand, musicians demand the imposition of restrictions on immigration in order to compel everyone to remain in his own country.

Many of the demands, moreover, are of a purely national character, and would in no case necessitate any practical action on the part of the Committee on International Co-operation.

In conclusion, therefore, I am unable to suggest to the Committee the adoption of any positive measures; despite this, however, this enquiry will not have been in vain if it calls attention to the general position of musicians, their needs, and the questions which occupy their minds, and if it elicits that spontaneous help which alone enables music and musicians in distress to continue the discharge of their high functions.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS
COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY
INTO THE
CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series

INTELLECTUAL LIFE

in the

VARIOUS COUNTRIES

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

TECHNICAL SCIENCES

by

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in collaboration with the Czechoslovak Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

NOTE

The object of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation in publishing this series of pamphlets is to call attention to the problems of organisation and intellectual assistance to which each subject gives rise. The Committee does not propose to treat these subjects exhaustively, but desires rather to bring them to the notice of the public and to provide an opportunity for further suggestions.

TECHNICAL SCIENCES

INTRODUCTORY NOTE

This report is based chiefly upon information and material supplied by Dr. Z. Bažant, Professor of Structural Mechanics and Stereotomy at the Czech Polytechnic School at Prague, Secretary-General of the Masaryk Labour Academy, member of the Czech Academy of Science, and by Dr. A. Klir, Professor of Hydraulic Engineering at the Czech Polytechnic School at Prague, President of the Masaryk Labour Academy and of the Society of Czechoslovak Engineers and Architects. The detailed replies given by the two Polytechnic Schools at Prague, the Masaryk Academy and the "Česká Matice Technická", have also been utilised.

I. — GENERAL SITUATION

Technical sciences play an important part in the intellectual life of Czechoslovakia; great progress is being made in this field, and institutes have recently been established or reorganised to encourage the development of these sciences.

Under Austrian rule, Czech technical literature was handicapped by the fact that all engineers and professors in the State service were obliged to publish the results of their researches in the two German official reviews, the "Allgemeine Bauzeitung" and the "Monatschrift für den öffentlichen Baudienst". The technical reviews in Czech, however, though less voluminous, maintained an equally high level, thanks to the co-operation of civil engineers and architects. Text-books were few, but the situation was distinctly improving.

The War practically interrupted all this development. One review, the "Technický Obzor" (Technical Review), which dealt with civil engineering, continued to appear, but in a much smaller compass. Relations with Western Europe and America—the countries which offered the greatest stimulus and the most encouraging examples to the technical sciences—were entirely cut off.

Since the War and the establishment of the Czechoslovak State, there has been constant progress—slow, but unquestionable. Special reviews for the principal technical sciences have been founded and, with the aid of institutions which will presently be described, a series of Czech text-books has been published to meet the most urgent needs. The reviews devote about half, and the text-books one-third, of their space to original work, the rest being filled with extracts from foreign publications and with popular articles.

The grants allowed to the Polytechnic High Schools at Prague and Brno (Brünn) for the purchase of books and instruments were reduced during the War but have now been raised considerably, thus enabling a larger number of publications to be issued. Moreover, the Government makes grants to technical workers for theoretic and practical training abroad and for preparation for higher education. Parliament readily votes the necessary funds for establishing new technical laboratories and supporting the technical workers' organisations.

There has been an undoubted increase of public interest in the purely technical sciences, which was not very keen before or during the War. Evidence of this improvement may be found in the formation of engineering societies which, on payment of an annual subscription, supply their members with special weekly or monthly reviews. The 3,300 members of the Czechoslovak Society of Engineers and Architects pay an annual subscription of 100 Kr. and may choose any one of the three reviews published by the Society; the subscribers to these

reviews include a considerable number of non-members, but even so the total receipts scarcely cover the cost of publication. A further proof of growing public interest is the increased membership of the publishing society known as "Česká Matice Technická". In 1913, it had 86 foundation members; by 1922, this number had increased to 121, and the number of active members, of whom there were under 1000 before the War and until 1916, was doubled in 1918-19 and amounted to 4,751 in 1922; at present there is a membership of over 5,000. During recent years the society has shown such great activity that its funds are now exhausted, although since 1921 it has been in receipt of an annual Government grant of 120,000 Kr.

The financial difficulties with which all Czechoslovak scientific publications, especially periodicals, have to contend, are due to the industrial crisis, the high cost of living and, above all, the rise in the cost of printing, which is ten times in excess of pre-war prices. However, none of the reviews has been discontinued and the situation has slightly improved since the beginning of 1923. The larger technical institutions and associations have considerably increased the fees they pay for scientific work; but these fees are still insufficient to meet the high cost of living. Without the help of these institutes, it would be extremely difficult to publish any work on pure technical science; publications of that kind very seldom find a private publisher and yield little or no profit.

Foundations have therefore been established and competitions organised to encourage the recruitment of specialists. Two such foundations have been established by the engineers themselves—one in 1920, on the occasion of the 75th anniversary of the opening of the first railway in Bohemia, and the other in honour of Professor A. V. Velflik, the first President of the Masaryk Academy; the time-limit for the first competitions organised by these two Foundations has not yet expired. Other competitions for the best solution of a technical problem, and essay competitions covering the whole field of technical science, have been announced by the Masaryk Academy (since 1922) and by the Institute of National Economy. The laboratories of the technical high schools also attract a good number of younger specialists.

It is thus becoming comparatively easy to obtain recruits, but very few devote themselves entirely to scientific work, as it does not afford them a living. Only those technical workers who obtain employment in the private laboratories of the great factories at Prague, Plzen, Kladno, Mor. Ostrava, etc., are more fortunate in this respect, but the results of the research work undertaken in these laboratories are very rarely published.

Conditions might improve if there were a larger number of posts concerned mainly with scientific work, as, for example, professorships at the technical high schools and scientific appointments at the research institutes. In time, purely scientific experiments carried out in technical laboratories will be better appreciated, and their results will contribute to the adaptation of science to human needs. At present most of these institutes, like the technical experts, are suffering from a shortage of instruments and materials, especially of those which were requisitioned during the War (platinum, microscopes, etc.). These are gradually being replaced with the help of Government grants, which, however, are not always large enough to cover the immediate purchase of all the necessary instruments or publications, particularly those which have to be obtained from abroad.

II. — THE TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOLS

In 1806 a German polytechnic institute (later termed a high school) was established at Prague on the pattern of the Polytechnic School at Paris. Teaching was given in both German and Czech from 1863 till 1868, when the institute was divided into two separate schools. In 1850, a second German polytechnic school was opened at Brno (Brünn), followed in 1899 by a Czech polytechnic school. In addition to these, a school of mining was established at Příbram in 1849, and converted into a high school in 1894.

Since the establishment of the Czechoslovak Republic, technical instruction has been reorganised and extended. In 1920, the polytechnic schools with their special departments and faculties were reconstituted; the German School of Agriculture at Tetschen-Liebwerd, which was established in 1850 and converted into an academy in 1900, was recognised as a higher institution and became the agricultural department of the German Polytechnic High School at Prague. The German professors at the high school of Mining at Příbram, now an exclusively Czech school, were also transferred to the German Polytechnic School at Prague, where they now give preparatory courses of lectures in their special subjects. Finally, the Czechoslovak State, in the first year of its existence, established a high school of agriculture at Brno (Brünn); this was divided into two faculties (agriculture and forestry), and for the year 1921-22 numbered 60 professors and lecturers, 498 students, and 22 scientific institutes.

The two polytechnic schools at Prague are undoubtedly the most important of these institutions. Their joint library establishes a bond between them, though each has its own private library. A central technical library will be opened later. Both institutions are divided into special branches on much the same plan. The Czech school comprises the following departments :

1. *a.* Bridges and highways;
1. *b.* Rural engineering;
2. Architecture;
3. Industrial mechanics and electricity;
4. Chemistry;
5. Agriculture and forestry;
6. Special studies;
7. Commerce.

The departments of the German school are almost the same : the preparatory school of mining is attached to the mechanical and electro-technical department; as we have already stated, the agricultural department (12 professorships) is at Tetschen-Liebwerd, and the general department of the German school corresponds roughly to the special studies and commercial department in the Czech school. The German school proposes to transform its preparatory school of mining into a special department and to create a forestry department and a commercial high school at Prague, as well as forestry and veterinary departments at Tetschen-Liebwerd. The Czech and German schools at Brno are organised on similar lines, but, as there is a separate school of agriculture in that town, the subject is not taught in the polytechnic schools. Each school has its own library. Numerous institutions and valuable collections are attached to the various Chairs in all four polytechnic schools.

The difficulties confronting these schools under present conditions are much the same as those experienced by the universities. They complain chiefly of lack of accommodation. This is felt most acutely at Prague (1), where the premises of the polytechnic schools are—like the university buildings—scattered throughout the town, and where the housing shortage is so acute as to prevent the appointment of additional professors. The professors also give courses and popular lectures (two courses and fifteen lectures for the session 1921-1922 at the Czech school, and holiday courses in the provinces organised by the German school and its agricultural department); like their university colleagues, they are members of the Czech and German professor's associations. Similarly, the students at the technical schools take advantage of establishments which provide board and lodging for university students on easy terms; they have special funds at their disposal and have created a number of scientific associations. Subscriptions have been trebled since the year 1921-22.

The financial means at the disposal of the polytechnic schools are considerable, but not large enough for the purchase of all the necessary foreign books. The budget of the Czech

(1) The extension of the premises of the school at Tetschen-Liebwerd, planned before the War, has now become indispensable.

school at Prague, which in 1913-14 and in 1918-19 was less than a million and a-half crowns, has increased so rapidly that it amounted to 9,825,768 crowns in 1922 and to 18,602,151 (about 3,000,000 Swiss francs) in 1923. The budget of the German school in the same town, which before the war was 772,412 crowns, rose to 4,747,347 crowns in 1922. This sum, however, includes the budget of the agricultural school at Tetschen-Liebwerd (450,000 crowns), which was a separate item before the War, when it amounted to 111,408 crowns.

At the Czech polytechnic school at Prague, the number of professors, assistants and readers has been doubled since the War (54, 83 and 11 in 1913; 100, 194 and 17 in 1922). Before the War, in 1913-14, there were 2,898 students. There was naturally a decided decrease during the War; numbers fell to 882 in 1916-17, but rose 4,749 during 1918-19, and in 1921-22 attained a maximum of 6,860; for the year 1922-23, 6,100 students were entered on the rolls. The number of doctor's degrees obtained each year has remained stationary (about 20). At the German polytechnic school in the same town, the increase in the number of professors and assistants was less appreciable : 36 and 50 in 1913, 44 and 69 in 1922. On the other hand, the number of students (903 in 1913, 2,194 in 1922) and of State examinations passed has risen considerably (1). The German polytechnic school at Brno (Brünn) is almost as large as the one at Prague (2,163 students and 63 professors and lecturers in 1922); there are several hundred fewer students at the Czech school in that town, but practically an equal number of professors.

In all the technical schools, a certain number of foreign languages are taught; at Prague, for instance, ten languages are taught at the Czech school, and five, including Ido, at the German school. Professors are very rarely exchanged. At present there are only a few Russian professors, who give free lectures in Russian at the Czech Polytechnic School at Prague.

The polytechnic schools in Czechoslovakia, like the universities, admit foreign students if their previous education is recognised as equivalent to that which is required of nationals, and if there are vacancies. Since 1921, the Ministry has reserved the right to admit Hungarians, Poles, Russians and Ukrainians to the German technical schools. The equivalent value of technical education acquired abroad is recognised on conditions of reciprocity. There were comparatively few foreign students at the Czech school in Prague both before and after the War (210 in 1913-14; 301 in 1918-19), but in 1921-22 their number rose to 2,178; in 1922-23 there were 2,107, practically a third of the total number of students. More than half these foreigners are Russians (1,113 in 1921-22). There are 436 Jugo-Slavs, 279 Ukrainians, 158 Bulgars and 117 Roumanians. Before the War there were very few foreign students at the German school (19 in 1913) : in 1922 there were 307, 78 of whom passed their examinations. The majority were Roumanians, Poles and Austrians.

III. — ASSOCIATIONS AND INSTITUTES FOR THE PROMOTION OF TECHNICAL SCIENCES

The Czech Academy of Science and Art has from time to time published reports and articles on technical sciences. Of late years however, the need for a special academy to organise technical work in Czechoslovakia has been felt. Since the establishment of Czechoslovakia as an independent State, the scheme has taken shape, and the law of January 29th, 1920, officially established the new institution called the "Masaryk Labour Academy". This institution, which marks a new departure, is progressing favourably, in spite of its economic difficulties, and proposes methodically to develop the capacities of the population and to exploit the natural resources of the country for the general good. To this end it encourages every form of research work in the field of technical science, in so far as it has a bearing upon practical life. It also affords facilities for the training of qualified workers and the education of the masses in this branch of

(1) At Tetschen-Liebwerd there were 30 professors and assistants and 74 students in 1913-14, and 29 professors and 193 students in 1922-23.

knowledge; it organises competitions, awards prizes, publishes scientific works and co-operates with all other organisations with similar aims.

The academy is composed of six Departments (natural and medical sciences, agriculture and forestry, public works, mechanical and electro-technical construction, industrial chemistry, political and social economy) combined under a central Executive Committee. The control of the Academy is in the hands of a Scientific Council, the members of which are elected permanently and are divided into six sections corresponding to the six Departments of the Academy; each Department elects a certain number of experts for a period of six years. In 1923, there were 30 members of the Council and 201 members of Departments. The Academy is collecting a library, which at present contains 4,430 volumes and 124 periodicals. It has established a number of institutes and committees (committees for hydro-technical experiments and mining; institutes for town-planning, testing materials, physico-technics, industrial economy; a committee for industrial standardisation, etc.). In 1922 it affiliated the Association for the Investigation and Testing of Materials and Technical Constructions, to which it grants subsidies. A few chemical laboratories, dealing principally with the analysis of combustible materials and silicates, also receive grants from the Masaryk Academy, which publishes the results of their work. The publications of the Academy already fill 14 volumes, and six further volumes are in the press. In 1922, it awarded 11 scholarships. The Academy proposes in the future to offer prizes to the authors of first-rate works, to undertake further scientific publications, to organise special exhibitions and to found a new hydrological institute at Prague.

The greatest obstacle to the development of the Academy is the lack of suitable accommodation. It is also hindered by the unfavourable conditions of publishing and the low fees paid for scientific work as compared with wages for manual labour. Nevertheless, its existence is financially secure; President Masaryk gave a million crowns for its foundation, and it has, since 1922, been in receipt of an annual grant of a million crowns from the Government. It is also supported in part by public bodies and private undertakings, as well as by the Association of Friends of the Masaryk Academy, founded in 1920, which publishes a periodical dealing with labour problems.

The chief of the associations which concern themselves with technical sciences independently of the Academy is the Society of Czechoslovak Engineers and Architects, to which reference has already been made. This, too, receives a small State grant and publishes three reviews dealing respectively with public works, the construction of machinery, and architecture. The Czechoslovak Chemical Society, which publishes a periodical dealing with pure and applied chemistry, the Czechoslovak Electro-Technical Society, and the Society of Mining Engineers, with their special reviews, should also be mentioned. A weekly official bulletin which the Ministry for Public Works, in collaboration with other Ministries, has been publishing since 1919 contains articles on public works of special interest, and a section is devoted to original scientific work. The pupils' societies of the Czech Polytechnic School at Prague from time to time publish scientific works, chiefly consisting of lectures given at that school; in 1920 a central publishing committee was formed which, aided by the students' associations, issues lithographed texts of the lectures. The Donat Foundation at the Brno Polytechnic School, which is private, but receives State grants, serves the same purpose.

In conclusion, a few details should be given concerning the "Česká Matice Technická", a co-operative organisation founded in 1895 by Czech engineers for the issue and popularisation of technical publications; its rapid development has been described above. In spite of financial difficulties, this society continued until 1922 to publish about five volumes on scientific works annually. In all it has published 114 volumes. In 1922, it also published 19 volumes of *The World and Labour*, an important popular series; six new scientific books are to appear in 1923. The proceeds of the sale of these publications are so large (170,786 crowns in 1920; 301,153 in 1921; 227,579 in 1922) that, with members' subscriptions, which have increased from 9,280 crowns in 1913 to 92,665 crowns in 1922, they practically enable the association to balance its budget.

Research work in technical science is carried on in the laboratories of the technical high schools, amongst which the Technical and Engineering Research Institute should be mentioned;

this institute was founded in 1921 at the Technical School in Prague with a view to the experimental investigation of wood, iron and reinforced concrete materials and structures. There is also at Prague an institute for research work on beet sugar. The Hydrotechnical Research Institute at Brno is already open for work, and another institute is being established at Prague, as well as a State institute for research work on coal. The various institutes for agricultural research publish the results of their work in a special review. Almost all these institutes, as well as the Geological and Hydrological Institute at Prague, receive State grants. There is also a technical museum, founded by private association. The establishment, in addition, of institutes for electricity, aeronautics, town-planning and municipal hygiene would be most useful.

IV. — INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

Hitherto, chiefly for linguistic reasons, foreign countries have received scant information regarding Czech activities in the field of technical science or, indeed, of science in general. The Academy of Sciences alone was in the habit of including in its bulletins summaries of its publications in a widely known language. The Masaryk Academy generally adds a summary in French or English to any work it publishes. A "Review of Czechoslovak Scientific Publications" has recently been founded; it will contain short reports in French on all branches of Czech scientific work. The first volume (1918-1920) is to appear shortly.

Czechoslovak scholars also find difficulty in obtaining information concerning foreign publications. The only remedy would be a regular exchange of the principal reviews, but these are not easily procurable in consequence of the depreciation of the crown. In particular, the institutes of more recent foundation, such as the Research Institute at the Prague Polytechnic School, possess very few foreign periodicals.

An exchange of information concerning scientific organisations which exist in the various countries, unknown to each other, should also be encouraged. The International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation would render great services to science by collecting the addresses of such organisations with information as to their aims, and by communicating this information to the National Committees which co-operate with it. In this way it would promote direct international relations between intellectual workers; hitherto these relations have only been established at congresses or by the exchange of professors.

Before the War, German influence preponderated in the technical sciences in Czechoslovakia, and information concerning scientific work in other countries was obtained through the medium of Germany. Since 1918, direct relations with scientists in western countries have been established, and Czechoslovak industry is devoting its attention to the organisation of labour in American establishments, based upon the scientific study of "minimum movements" (Taylor-Gilbreth); the Masaryk Academy has appointed special committees for this work.

For the most part, relations with foreign countries have been maintained privately by individuals. The Czech Polytechnic High School at Prague, however, takes part in the work of the International Union for Pure and Applied Chemistry, the International Institute of Refrigeration at Paris, and the Permanent International Association of Navigation Congresses at Brussels. The Agricultural School at Tetschen-Liebwerd collaborates with the International Institute of Agriculture at Rome. Recently established scientific institutions, such as the Masaryk Academy, have only just begun to organise their international relationships. The Academy is already a member of the International Garden Cities Federation, the Association of Navigation Congresses, and the International Association of Road Congresses in Paris. It is assisting in the formation of a Labour Academy in the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

International relations might well be extended and organised more systematically. To do so is one of the aims of intellectual workers in Czechoslovakia.

SOCIÉTÉ DES NATIONS

Genève, le 5 novembre 1924.

COMMISSION INTERNATIONALE DE COOPÉRATION
INTELLECTUELLE

APPEL

Messieurs et chers collègues,

La Commission internationale de coopération intellectuelle s'est préoccupée, dès sa première séance, de la situation difficile créée par la guerre dans les milieux intellectuels de la plupart des pays. Elle s'est rendu compte des obstacles contre lesquels le travail intellectuel se heurtait, surtout dans les Etats de l'Europe où la dépréciation du change rendait énorme la disproportion entre ce qu'un travailleur intellectuel pouvait gagner normalement et ses besoins journaliers et ceux de sa famille.

Impuissante à soulager par ses modestes moyens les maux qu'elle voyait autour d'elle, et pénétrée du rôle que doit jouer la solidarité internationale, la Commission de coopération intellectuelle s'est adressée à plusieurs reprises aux intellectuels de tous les pays, les priant de venir en aide là où le péril était le plus menaçant.

Un appel a été lancé en faveur de l'Autriche et un autre en faveur de la Bibliothèque impériale de l'Université de Tokio.

La Commission a été heureuse de constater qu'elle avait été entendue et que des contributions ont été envoyées, même de pays qui se trouvent eux-mêmes dans une situation financière précaire.

L'appel que nous avons lancé en faveur de l'Autriche et du Japon, nous le renouvelons aujourd'hui en faveur de la Hongrie. Presque ruiné par la guerre, ce pays n'a vu ses finances s'améliorer que le jour où a été mis en application le projet de restauration établi par la Société des Nations ; ce projet lui a permis d'obtenir un emprunt international et a placé ses finances sous le contrôle d'un Commissaire général nommé par la Société des Nations. Les revenus de l'Etat étant réservés maintenant à la reconstruction, les institutions d'ordre intellectuel souffrent encore et la vie intellectuelle du pays est en danger.

La cinquième Assemblée, saisie de cette question par le délégué de la Hongrie, a voté à l'unanimité la résolution suivante :

« L'Assemblée exprime le désir que la Commission de coopération intellectuelle adresse, sous l'autorité du Conseil, le même appel aux universités, académies et sociétés scientifiques, dans l'intérêt des travailleurs intellectuels de la Hongrie, qu'elle leur a adressé en novembre 1922 en faveur des travailleurs intellectuels de l'Autriche. Elle prie le Conseil de bien vouloir agir à cet égard comme il a agi dans l'intérêt de l'Autriche. »

En exécution de cette résolution, nous invitons vivement les universités, académies et sociétés savantes du monde entier à envoyer aux universités, académies, sociétés savantes de Hongrie leurs publications et à organiser des échanges avec ces dernières. Dans leur situation actuelle, les institutions hongroises sont incapables d'envoyer des publications de valeur égale à celles qu'elles recevraient, mais elles seraient très probablement heureuses de contribuer, dans la mesure de leurs moyens, à compléter à leur tour des collections, en échange de ce qu'on aurait complété chez elles.

Des dons pourraient être faits aux instituts de recherches, qui se trouvent souvent dans l'impossibilité de se procurer par leurs propres moyens les appareils ou les produits dont ils ont besoin.

Nous invitons également les universités, académies et sociétés savantes à organiser avec les institutions correspondantes de Hongrie des échanges de professeurs et de conférenciers, des échanges d'étudiants. Peut-être, même, serait-il possible de mettre à la disposition des savants et des étudiants hongrois certaines bourses, afin de leur permettre de poursuivre leurs recherches et de continuer leurs études.

En venant à l'aide de la Hongrie, vous renforcerez l'esprit de solidarité qui doit unir entre eux les intellectuels des divers pays. Je suis sûr que vous voudrez contribuer ainsi au maintien de la civilisation, exposée actuellement à de si graves dangers, et que le présent appel trouvera un écho chez les intellectuels du monde entier.

H. BERGSON,

Président de la Commission internationale de coopération intellectuelle.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Geneva, November 5th, 1924.

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL
CO-OPERATION

AN APPEAL

Gentlemen,

At its first meeting the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation gave its serious attention to the difficult position in which intellectual workers in most countries were placed in consequence of the war. It realised the obstacles standing in the way of intellectual work, especially in those European countries in which, as a result of the depreciation of the currency, there was an enormous difference between the normal earnings of an intellectual worker and the sum he required for his daily needs and those of his family.

With the slender means at its disposal the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation was powerless to relieve the distress which it saw around it, but, firmly convinced of the part which international solidarity should play, it applied on several occasions to the intellectual workers of all countries, and asked for assistance in those cases in which the danger was greatest.

One appeal was launched on behalf of Austria, and another on behalf of the Imperial Library of Tokio University.

The Committee was gratified to find that its appeals were heard, and that contributions were sent even from countries which were themselves in a precarious financial situation.

We are now making the same appeal on behalf of Hungary as we made in the case of Austria and Japan. Hungary was nearly ruined by the war, and the present improvement in her financial position dates only from the putting into force of the League of Nations reconstruction scheme, whereby an international loan was obtained for Hungary and her finances were placed under the control of a League Commissioner-General. The revenue of the country being reserved for reconstruction, educational institutions and learned bodies are still suffering, and the intellectual life of the whole country is in danger.

The Fifth Assembly, before which this question was brought by the Hungarian delegate, unanimously adopted the following resolution :

"The Assembly expresses the wish that the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation should make—under the Council's authority—the same appeal to the universities, academies and other scientific bodies on behalf of the intellectual workers of Hungary which it made in November 1922 on behalf of the intellectual workers in Austria. The Council is respectfully asked to act with regard to that matter in the same way as it acted in the case of Austria."

In accordance with this resolution we earnestly invite the universities, academies and learned societies of the whole world to send their publications to the Hungarian universities, academies and learned societies, and to organise exchanges with them. In their present position, Hungarian institutions are unable to send publications of equal value to those which they may receive, but they will in all probability be happy to add, so far as their means permit, to collections in other countries in return for the completion of collections of their own.

Gifts might be made to research institutions which frequently do not themselves possess the necessary funds to purchase the apparatus and materials they require.

We further ask universities, academies and learned societies to organise exchanges of professors and lecturers and exchanges of students with similar institutions in Hungary. It might even be possible to place certain funds at the disposal of Hungarian men of science and students to enable them to continue their researches and studies.

In coming to the assistance of Hungary, you will be strengthening that sense of brotherhood which should unite the intellectual workers of the various countries. I feel certain that you will desire to contribute in this manner towards supporting civilisation, which is exposed at the present time to very grave dangers, and that this appeal will be answered by intellectual workers throughout the world.

H. BERGSON,

Chairman of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION

ENQUIRY

INTO

THE CONDITIONS OF INTELLECTUAL WORK

Second Series

INTELLECTUAL LIFE

IN THE

VARIOUS COUNTRIES

CANADA

THE UNIVERSITIES

By

Henri REVERDIN

Professor at the University of Geneva,
Expert on the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

THE UNIVERSITIES

BY

HENRI REVERDIN

(Professor at the University of Geneva)

Expert on the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

INTRODUCTION.

The following questionnaire was sent in 1923 to the Government of Canada by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations :

COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION.

QUESTIONNAIRE.

1. What State administrative organisations (Government departments, local authorities, special offices, committees, etc.) take part in any capacity in directing intellectual life (higher education, preparation for such education, science, literature, the fine arts, publication) and what institutions are devoted to the study of educational questions and to that of the intellectual movement ?

Please forward any official publications which would provide the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation with information regarding the development and the financial resources of these organisations from 1913 inclusive.

What are the laws, or proposed laws, decrees and circulars relating to higher education, science, literature, the fine arts and intellectual life in general which have been published from 1913 inclusive ?

Please mention the chief Parliamentary debates, if any (including Parliamentary bills), which have dealt with these subjects since that date.

3. What are the chief official statistical data relating to higher education and the output of printed matter during the same period, and to the salaries and wages of intellectual workers ?

4. What are the principal scientific, literary and artistic institutions (libraries and bibliographical institutes, record offices, museums, laboratories, observatories, etc.) in your country ? What are the institutions for higher education, the scholarships, prizes and foundations, both private and official, for the encouragement of intellectual work ? If a list of these institutions is to be found in any national or international year-book, please give the name of such publication.

5. To what international conventions relating to intellectual work or to education has the Government adhered ?

Please furnish copies of the text of special or regional conventions, *i.e.*, those included with a limited number of States.

6. How has your country organised its intellectual relations with other countries (teaching of foreign languages and literatures, exchange of publications and bibliographical information, exchange of professors and students, standardisation of studies and degrees, schools and research institutes abroad, academic organisations for foreigners, etc.) ?

The Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs of the Government of Canada sent the following reply, dated January 22nd, 1924 :

“ I have the honour to transmit herewith copies of replies which have been received from the various provincial authorities, together with the answered questionnaires and other material referred to therein. ”

Here follows the list of the provincial authorities who have replied to the questionnaire :

Prince Edward Island : M. MACKINNON, Lieutenant-Governor, Charlottetown, August 25th, 1923.

Nova Scotia : MACALLUM GRANT, Lieutenant-Governor, Halifax, December 1st, 1923.

New Brunswick : WILLIAM F. TODD, Lieutenant-Governor, Fredericton, September 28th, 1923.

Quebec : C. FITZPATRICK, Lieutenant-Governor, Quebec, August 6th, 1923.

Ontario : H. COCKSHUTT, Lieutenant-Governor, January 15th, 1924.

Manitoba : J. A. M. AIKINS, Lieutenant-Governor, Winnipeg, April 30th, 1923.

Saskatchewan : H. W. NEWLANDS, Lieutenant-Governor, Regina, July 17th, 1923.

Alberta : R. G. BRETT, Lieutenant-Governor, Edmonton, June 14th, 1923.

British Columbia : W. C. NICHOL, Lieutenant-Governor, Victoria, April 24th, 1923.

The list of the printed documents which have been sent with the answers to questionnaire is as follows :

Nova Scotia :

“ Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia ” for the year ending July 31st, 1922.

Journal of Education, being the semi-annual supplement to the “ Report of the Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia ”, October 1920. *Idem*, April 1923.

“ Manual of School Law, Nova Scotia ”, 1921.

Province of Quebec :

“ Statistical Year-Book of Quebec ”, 1922 ; in English and French.

“ Annuaire statistique de Québec ”, 1923, in French.

“ Statistiques municipales pour l'année civile 1922 ”, in French.

“ Statistiques de l'enseignement pour l'année scolaire 1921-1922 ”, in French.

Ontario :

“ Proceedings of Ontario Educational Association ”, 1922.

“ Report of the Ontario School Trustees and Ratepayers Association ”, 1921.

“ Regulations and Courses for the Summer Model Schools ”, 1923.

“ Regulations of Courses of Study and Examinations of the Normal Schools ”, 1923-1924.

“ Report of the Minister of Education ”, 1922.

“ Acts of the Department of Education ”, from 1914 to 1923. . .

Saskatchewan :

“ Annual Report of the Department of Education of the Province of Saskatchewan ”, 1921.

British Columbia :

“ Manual of the School Law and Schools Regulations of the Province of British Columbia ”, 1921.

“ Fifty-first Annual Report of the Public Schools of the Province of British Columbia ”, 1921-1922, by the Superintendent of Education, with appendices.

Having been asked by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to examine the various documents mentioned above with a view to obtaining information on the Canadian universities, I have the honour to present this report.

In addition to the documents referred to, I have consulted the handbooks of the Canadian universities, together with several presidential reports which have been received by the Secretariat, and the following publications :

“ Canada Year-book ”, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

“ Statistical Report on Education in Canada ”, 1921 (Dominion Bureau of Statistics), Ottawa, 1923.

“ Year-book of the Universities of the Empire ”, London, 1924.

Index Generalis.

Minerva.

* * *

Probably the most remarkable feature of the statistics is the extraordinary growth during the present century of expenditure on public education.

In 1901, the total expenditure for the purposes of public education in Canada was \$11,751,625 (the population being 5,371,315) ; in 1921, the expenditure was \$102,561,425 (population, 8,788,483) — an increase of \$90,809,800, or 773 per cent.

Higher education in Canada is provided for by a number of universities and colleges. It is probably not true to say that Canada has evolved a distinctive type of university, and yet Canada's higher institutions of learning differ in many ways from the corresponding institutions in the British Isles and in the United States. The oldest university in Canada, *viz.* King's College, Windsor, N.S., dates from 1789 and claims to be also the oldest university in His Majesty's Overseas Dominions.

One might divide Canadian universities into groups determined by the prototype on which each was consciously or unconsciously modelled.

1. In the first group are those which followed clearly the Oxford tradition : King's, New Brunswick ; Bishop's, Toronto ; and some of its federated colleges (Universities of Trinity and Wycliffe).

2. The universities in the second group are those which modelled themselves on Edinburgh, *viz.* Dalhousie, McGill, Queen's.

3. Laval in Quebec, Laval in Montreal (which has lately changed its name to the “ University of Montreal ”), and Ottawa have followed closely the forms and tradition of France.

4. The four western provincial universities of Manitoba (1877), Saskatchewan (1877-1907), Alberta (1906) and British Columbia (1907), and especially the three latter, bear a close resemblance to the state universities of the United States.

5. The universities which have not been named are perhaps more free from direct imitation of older types.

There are denominational universities : Roman Catholic ; Protestant (Anglican, Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist) ; undenominational universities : state universities ; private universities. These distinctions are made by me in the following list of universities.

Several of the universities are affiliated to the older universities of the mother-country, viz. Oxford, Cambridge and Dublin, whilst some of the similar Canadian universities, as well as most of the colleges in Ontario and Quebec, are affiliated to either Toronto or McGill. As the years have gone by, all these institutions, while maintaining duality and evidence of their original form, have tended to uniformity in many important regards. For instance, they all require a common standard of preliminary education for admission to the course leading to these degrees. This standard is that attained by a pupil who has completed three years of a high-school course after eight years in common schools. This standard is called junior matriculation. If a pupil has successfully completed the fourth year of a high-school course in the proper subjects, or possesses the equivalent senior matriculation examination, he can enter the second year and complete the course for the degree in three years. This practically amounts to saying that high schools or collegiate institutes which have a fourth year do in that year about the same work as is done in the first year of the university course ¹.

LIST OF THE UNIVERSITIES.

Province	University	Where located	Original Foundation	Present Charter
<i>Prince Edward Island</i>	University of St. Dunstan's	Charlottetown	1855	
<i>Nova Scotia</i>	University of King's College	Windsor ; 1924 : Halifax.	1789-1802	Anglican.
	Dalhousie University,	Halifax.	1818-1863	Private.
	Acadia University,	Wolfville.	1838-1840	Baptist.
	University of St. Francis Xavier,	Antigonish,	1855-1909	Roman Catholic.
<i>New Brunswick</i> .	University of New Brunswick	Fredericton.	1800-1860	State University.
	Mount Allison University,	Sackville.	1858-1886	Methodist.
			1913	
<i>Quebec</i>	University of St. Joseph's College	St. Joseph.	1864-1898	Roman Catholic.
	McGill University,	Montreal.	1821-1852	Private.
	University of Bishop's College	Lennoxville.	1843-1853	Anglican.
	Laval University,	Quebec.	1852-	Roman Catholic.
	University of Montreal,	Montreal.	1878-1920	Roman Catholic.
<i>Ontario</i>	University of Toronto,	Toronto.	1827-1906	State University.
	Victoria University,	Toronto.	1836-	Methodist.
	University of Trinity College	Toronto.	1851-1852	Anglican.
	Western University,	London.	1878-1908	Private.
	Queen's University,	Kingston.	1841-	Private.
	University of Ottawa,	Ottawa.	1849-1866	Roman Catholic.
	McMaster University,	Toronto.	1857-1887	Baptist.
<i>Manitoba</i>	University of Manitoba,	Winnipeg.	1877-	State University.
<i>Saskatchewan</i> ...	University of Saskatchewan	Saskatoon.	1907-	State University.
<i>Alberla</i>	University of Alberta,	Edmonton.	1906-1910	State University.
<i>Brilish Columbia</i>	University of British Columbia	Vancouver.	1907-1908	State University.

¹ "Canada Year-book", 1921 ; "British Empire Year-book", 1924.

I will now give, for each province separately :

- (a) The passages from the replies sent by the authorities referring to academic life ;
- (b) Any information concerning the universities that seems of general interest.

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PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPLY SENT BY THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.

4.¹ We have no literary, artistic or scientific institutions. No museums or laboratories. We have a Prince of Wales College for the training of teachers. In that college there are six scholarships — two for each county — of some \$80 yearly each, apart from salaries to teachers. That is all the encouragement given to intellectual work.

5. To what international conventions relating to intellectual work or to education has the Government adhered ? — To none.

6. No intellectual relations with other countries. English is the recognised language taught in all the schools in this province. French is also taught with English in the schools where the French population predominates. There is a denominational institution here known as St. Dunstan's College where degrees are granted. There is no exchange of professors or students except incidental. No standardisation of studies and degrees. No academic organisations for foreigners, etc.

UNIVERSITY.

University of St. Dunstan, Charlottetown.

Founded in 1855, this institution has the following faculties : Arts, Preparatory and Commercial ; Theology.

The degrees conferred are : B.L., B.A., B.Sc., and Ph.M.

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* *

NOVA SCOTIA.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPLY SENT BY THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.

1. The public-school system, Nova Scotia, 1922 : In Nova Scotia the system is a twelve-year public-school course, of which the first eight grades are known as common school and the remaining four grades as high school, all under the same school board, and are not only free but require attendance of pupils generally until sixteen years of age.

This course qualifies those graduating for entrance into the universities and the various vocational and technical schools and colleges.

Technical Subjects.

In the Technical Education Branch, there is, under the Director, the Technical College, affiliated to the universities of the province, which give the first two years of the courses leading to a degree, the last two years being given in the well-equipped laboratories and lecture-room of the college, locally known as the "Tech".

The Director organises local engineering schools and mining schools at the more important industrial centres, and evening technical schools in the cities and towns. Correspondence courses are also being organised, covering a wide range of technical subjects. 181 students ; in 1922, 50 were in the college, 456 in coal-mining schools and 2,032 in the evening technical schools.

¹ The figures correspond to those of the questions in the questionnaire.

In the College of Agriculture at Truro, 44 were enrolled in the regular course, and 500 took short courses.

Salaries and Revenue.

The average salaries for each class of teachers in 1921 were as follows :

Male	Academic	\$2,013 ;	A.	\$1,465 ;	B.	\$1,185 ;	C.	\$673 ;	D.	\$560.
Female	Academic	\$1,368 ;	A.	\$910 ;	B.	\$709 ;	C.	\$577 ;	D.	\$446.

Universities and Degree-Conferring Colleges.

1. There are ten degree-conferring institutions within the province, if we count the Technical and Agricultural Colleges, with the University of Mount Allison (Wesleyan) just across the border but in New Brunswick, which would make eleven. All the other institutions, except the University of Dalhousie, are under the management of religious denominations.

Dalhousie, Halifax, with faculties of Arts, Science, Law, Medicine, Dentistry and Pharmacy, had an enrolment of students in 1922 of 712.

St. Francis Xavier (Roman Catholic), Antigonish, with faculties of Arts and Science, had 212 students.

Kings (Episcopalian), Windsor, with faculties of Arts, Science, Law and Theology, 118 students. (It has just moved to Halifax in federation with the University of Dalhousie.)

Holy Heart Seminary (French Roman Catholic), Halifax, with a faculty of Theology, had 78 students.

College of St. Anne (French Roman Catholic), Church Point, Digby County, with faculties of Arts and Science, had 69 students.

Acadia (Baptist), Wolfville, with faculties of Arts, Science and Theology, had 307 students.

Presbyterian College, Halifax, with only a faculty in Theology, had 36 students.

St. Mary's College (Roman Catholic), Halifax, with faculties in Arts, Science and Theology, had 15 students.

The Nova Scotia Technical College, Halifax, had 50 in its regular courses, for degrees in Engineering, etc.

The Nova Scotia College of Agriculture, Truro, had 44 in its regular courses.

At the present moment, a proposal for the consolidation of the Universities of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick at Halifax, to serve for these provinces, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland, is being considered.

The Carnegie Corporation of New York, after a survey of the educational conditions of these Atlantic provinces, has suggested and recommended a general plan.

2. University education, excepting technical education already referred to, is neither controlled nor subsidised by the Provincial Government since 1881, when the universities declined to surrender their degree-conferring powers in favour of an examining provincial university created by the Legislature in 1876 — the University of Halifax, which functioned regularly for three years.

In the Fine Arts, the Provincial Government and the City of Halifax subsidised to a small extent the Victoria School of Art and Design, situated in the City of Halifax and incorporated in 1888.

3. The salaries and wages of intellectual workers, including the teachers in the public schools and professors in the universities, advanced somewhat during the last few years, but not in the same ratio as in all other employments.

4. The Government of Nova Scotia has adhered to the Quedriennial Conference of the Education Departments of the Empire originally convened in London in 1911, which, after

being interrupted by the war, was resumed in 1923. It has always adhered to the Educational Conference under the leadership of the League of the Empire.

The Education Department has always non-officially adhered to the National Education Association of the United States of North America. This is done at the personal expense of the head of the Education Department, who cultivates similar relations so far as practicable with international conventions, except when unable to attend personally or by a representative.

5. The Education Department exchanges its reports and publications with all countries reciprocating. French, German, Spanish, and Esperanto are being recommended to the public schools, of which the first two are largely taken advantage of, in addition to Latin and Greek, in our high schools. The province of Nova Scotia has taken an active part in standardising the range of common-school and high-school subjects (or secondary education), prescribing an average eight-year course for the former and a further programme of four years for the latter, as a desirable standard for matriculation in the universities, as well as for a general preparation for other duties of citizenship — the subjects to be equivalents, not essentially the same, but of an average maturity of a course of twelve years' public-school training.

UNIVERSITIES.

*University of King's College, Halifax.*¹

King's College owes its origin to the Loyalists. It was founded by an Act of the Legislature of the province of Nova Scotia in the year 1789 through the exertions of Dr. Charles Inglis, the first colonial bishop, and was opened in 1790. A Royal Charter, conferring upon the college full university powers, was granted by King George III in 1802, which makes this the oldest colonial university in the British Empire.

The residential system, which is an important feature of college life, is modelled on that of English colleges. In the college chapel, the regular services of the Church, which all students are expected to attend, are held every morning and evening. While King's is essentially a Church college, it imposes no religious tests and gladly welcomes men and women of all denominations to its various classes. Students belonging to other religious bodies desiring to attend their own services on Sundays may do so with the permission of the president.

King's College was the pioneer of scientific training in the province. The new Science wing built in 1912 makes ample provision for lecture-rooms and opens to all well-stocked chemical and physical laboratories, including a complete wireless installation, and, in addition, provides accommodation for twenty men in residence.

A School of Law in connection with King's College was established at St. John, N.B., in 1892. Students passing the final examination of this school receive the degree of B.C.L. from King's College and are admitted attorneys in the province of New Brunswick without further examination.

Students who have taken the prescribed Science course and passed the required examinations are admitted to the third year of the Provincial Technical College at Halifax, and such students, upon presentation of the *testamur* of having passed the final examination of the Technical College, may be admitted to the degree of B.Sc.

¹ King's College has just moved from Windsor to Halifax.

Graduates in Arts who have attended lectures during their college course in Constitutional History, Contracts, Torts and Crimes, and having passed the required examinations in those subjects, are admitted to second-year standing in the Law School of Dalhousie College and can graduate in two years from the entry into the Law School.

Students from the Jamaica Church Theological College, after a residence of six terms at their own college, who pass the required examinations in the subjects of the Divinity course at King's College, may receive the diploma of L.S.T. ; and Divinity students who have completed the required residence at the Jamaica Church Theological College and have passed the necessary examinations according to the requirements of King's College may be admitted to the degree of B.A.

King's College is affiliated with the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge and Dublin under conditions which allow an undergraduate who has done at least two years' work to pursue his studies and take his degree at either of these universities after a reduced period of residence. Under the terms of affiliation with Oxford, candidates for the Rhodes Scholarship who have taken the Arts Course at King's College, including Greek, are exempt from the qualifying examination.

Organisation. — Arts, Law, Science, Divinity.

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., B.Sc., D.Sc., M.Sc., B.C.L., D.C.L., B.D., and D.D.

Affiliation. — With Oxford, Cambridge and Dublin, in federation with the University of Dalhousie.

Dalhousie University, Halifax.

Dalhousie College was founded in 1818 by the Right Hon. George Ramsay, ninth Earl of Dalhousie, "for the education of youth in the higher branches of science and literature".

The original endowment was derived from funds collected at the port of Castine, at that time a part of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, now of Maine, during its occupation in 1814 by Sir John Sherbrooke, then Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia. In a letter to Lord Bathurst dated December 14th, 1817, Lord Dalhousie, with the unanimous consent of the Council, proposed that £9,750 of these funds be devoted to the founding of a college or academy on the same plan and principle as that in Edinburgh, "open to all occupations and sects of religion, restricted to such branches only as are applicable to our present state, and having the power to expand with the growth and improvement of our society", and that this college be established in Halifax, "the seat of the legislature, of the courts of justice, of the military and the mercantile society". On February 6th, 1818, Lord Bathurst wrote expressing the Prince Regent's "entire approval of the application of the funds in question in the foundation of a seminary in Halifax for the higher classes of learning".

After unsuccessful efforts in 1822-24 and 1829-36, on the part of both the British Government and the Board of Governors, to effect a union with King's College, at that time the only other existing in the province, Dalhousie College was opened in 1838.

In 1841, an Act was passed conferring university powers upon the college. In 1845, the College was closed, the governors considering it "advisable to allow the funds of the institution to accumulate". In 1856, the Arts Department of Gorham College, Liverpool, supported by the Congregationalists, was transferred to Dalhousie, "with a view to the furtherance of the establishment of a provincial university", and for a short time an attempt was made to conduct the institution as a university under the Act of 1841. The history of Dalhousie College as an institution realising the purpose of its founder may be dated from 1863.

Different gifts made possible the endowment of different chairs : in 1879, of the chair of Physics, of History, of Political Economy, English Literature, Law and Metaphysics, in 1882 of Modern Languages, of Chemistry, etc. Mrs. E. B. Eddy, of Ottawa, made to the University a gift of \$300,000 to erect a women's building to serve as a residence and centre for the general

interests of the women students. The Rockefeller Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation, both in New York, contributed \$500,000 each to the university for the furtherance of medical education. Their magnificent gifts make possible a medical centre of first rank in the Maritime Provinces. The British Empire Steel Corporation made a promise of a contribution of \$250,000 for the encouragement of scientific research to stimulate the development of mineral and other natural resources of the province.

Students are classified as graduate students, undergraduates, matriculants and special students, the last being all who are not included in one of the preceding groups. Women are admitted to classes on the same conditions as men.

Organisation. — Arts and Sciences, Law, Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy.

Affiliated : Presbyterian College, Halifax, 1820 ; Prince of Wales College, Charlottetown, 1836-1860, Letters ; Halifax Conservatory of Music ; Maritime College of Pharmacy ; Halifax Ladies' College ; Convent of the Sacred Heart ; Mount St. Vincent Academy.

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., B.Sc., L.Mus., M.Sc., B.Mus., Phm.B., LL.B., M.D., C.M., D.D.S., and LL.D. (Hon.).

Affiliation. — Oxford and Cambridge.

Acadia University, Wolfville.

Acadia College was founded by the Nova Scotia Baptist Educational Society in 1838. Under the Statutes of the University of Oxford respecting Indian and Colonial Universities, Acadia University has been admitted to affiliation, with all the rights and privileges pertaining thereto.

By an arrangement with the Department of Medicine of McGill University, students taking certain courses for the Arts degree and performing the work in a satisfactory manner are permitted, after graduation, to enter the second year of the Medical Department and thereby shorten the medical course by one year.

By an arrangement with the faculty of Medicine of Edinburgh University, graduates of Acadia who have passed satisfactory examinations in Physics, Chemistry, Zoology and Botany are exempt from the first professional examinations and are admitted to the second year of Medicine in Edinburgh University.

Relations of affiliation have been established with McGill University whereby students who have satisfactorily completed the course in Engineering in this university are admitted to the third year of the faculty of Applied Science at McGill without examination.

By the terms of affiliation with the Nova Scotia Technical College, students who have satisfactorily completed the partial course in Engineering in this university are admitted to the third year of the Technical College without examination.

Organisation. — Arts, Science, Theology.

Degrees. — B.A., B.Sc., B.Th., and M.A.

Affiliation. — Oxford, Dalhousie, McGill Medical Department, Faculty of Applied Science, Nova Scotia Technical College, Edinburgh (faculty of Medicine).

University of Saint Francis Xavier's College, Antigonish.

This university is a residential college which was founded in 1855. In 1866, the entitled university powers were conferred upon the college by an Act of the Provincial Legislature which provided that : " St. Francis Xavier College at Antigonish should be held and taken to be a university with all the usual rights and privileges of such an institution, and the students in

the said college should have the liberty and the privilege of taking the degrees of Bachelor, Master and Doctor in several arts and faculties ”.

In 1888, extensive improvements were made. In 1920, the governors of the college launched a campaign to raise the sum of \$500,000 for the various needs of the college. The move having proved a success, many noted improvements were made in the college buildings.

In 1919, the Carnegie Corporation of New York offered a donation of \$50,000 for the endowment of a chair of French on condition that a similar amount were raised for a chair of Education and for scholarships. This condition was fulfilled early in 1920 as a result of the campaign referred to above. On February 8th, 1915, the Convocation of the University of Oxford passed the following decree, *viz.*: “That the University of St. Francis Xavier be admitted to the privileges of *Statt. tit. II.*, Section 8, on Colonial and Indian Universities ”.

On February 10th, 1917, the following regulation passed the Senate of the University of Cambridge: “That the University of St. Francis Xavier be adopted as an institution affiliated to the University of Cambridge ”.

The University offers :

(1) A four-years Arts course for the degree of Bachelor of Arts ; (2) a general science course for the degree of Bachelor of Science ; (3) an Engineering course of two years (students of St. Francis Xavier who can furnish certificates of having successfully completed the Engineering courses of the first two years are admitted without further examination in the third year of the leading technical colleges of Canada and the United States) ; (4) several graduate courses leading to the degrees of Master of Arts ; (5) extensive work.

Organisation. — Arts and Science, Engineering, Law.

Affiliated : St. Bernard's Ladies' College.

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., B.Sc., LL.D.

Affiliation. — None.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

EXTRACTS FROM THE PRINTED DOCUMENTS SENT BY THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.

UNIVERSITIES.

University of New Brunswick, Fredericton.

The university was established by Provincial Charter at the College of New Brunswick in 1800, founded and incorporated by Royal Charter in 1828, under the name of “King's College”, Fredericton, with the character and privileges of a university, and reorganised by an amended Charter in 1860 and denominated the University of New Brunswick. In 1907, a Provincial Act was passed granting \$5,000 additional aid to the university. Provision was made for the extension of the Engineering work previously undertaken by the university and for the introduction of a course in Scientific Forestry.

There are four classes of students recognised by the Act establishing the university, *viz.* : (1) undergraduates who are regularly matriculated and undertake the whole course of study required for the degree of B.A. or B.Sc. or Bachelor of Science in Engineering or Forestry (this course extends over a period of four years) ; (2) students in special undergraduate courses who are matriculated and pursue the studies necessary for the diploma in such special courses ; (3) partial students who are matriculated and attend two or more courses of lectures ; (4) occasional students on application to the faculty may be admitted to a particular course or courses of lectures.

Women are now admitted to the university on the same terms as men.

Organisation. — Arts, Applied Science, partial course in Law.

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., B.Sc., B. Civ. Eng., B. Electrical Eng. and D.Sc.

Affiliation. — Oxford, Cambridge, Dublin, McGill.

Mount Allison University, Sackville.

Mount Allison is named after Charles F. Allison, Esq., of Sackville, N.B., through whose generosity the Mount Allison Wesleyan Academy was, in January 1843, opened as an institution of higher education for boys and young men. For this Mr. Allison had contributed the site and buildings and offered an annual support of £1,000 toward the establishment of a similar academy for young women, which began its work in 1854. Mr. Allison gave many additional contributions down to his death in 1858.

In his last will and testament he made provision to assist in the founding of the college, and in the year 1858 an Act was passed by the Legislature of New Brunswick authorising the trustees of the Mount Allison Wesleyan Academy, under certain specified conditions, to establish and put in operation at Sackville a degree-conferring institution under the name and style of the "Mount Allison Wesleyan College"; this collegiate organisation was effected in 1862, and the work of instruction began with five professors and a tutor. The original charter was amended in 1886; the corporate name of the institution was changed to the "University of Mount Allison College". By legislation passed in 1913, the name of the corporation became the "Regents of Mount Allison". The corporation has under it three institutions, known as the "Mount Allison University", the "Mount Allison Ladies' College", and the "Mount Allison Academy".

According to the provisions of the amended Charter, the ultimate ownership of the university is vested in the General Conference of the Methodist Church of Canada. The direct government is, however, vested in a Board of Regents and a Senate, and the General Conference exercises a controlling influence on the affairs of the university solely through the power conferred on it by the Charter of appointing a majority of the regents. The university Senate is a composite body consisting of the faculty and twelve regents appointed by the board.

Affiliation with other Universities.

1. McGill University and Nova Scotia Technical College. — A scheme of affiliation between this university and the faculties of Applied Science of McGill University and the Nova Scotia Technical College has been agreed on as follows: (a) students who produce certificates of having completed the two-years course in Applied Science, as prescribed in this calendar, shall be admitted without examination to third-year standing in the courses of Applied Science at McGill and Nova Scotia Technical College; (b) the same privilege of entering without examination the third-year course of Applied Science at McGill and Nova Scotia Technical College is open to any graduate of this university who shall have taken as options the work in Applied Science required for the Engineering certificate.

2. Dalhousie Law School. — Graduates in Arts of this university who, during their undergraduate course, have attended classes in Constitutional History, International Law, Contracts and Torts, and have passed their examinations as required by the Law faculty of Dalhousie College, may graduate in the Law school of the said college in two years from time of entrance, provided they take, during these two years, all other required studies. (Notice is given of the general withdrawal of this affiliation after the expiration of the registration period in 1923.)

3. McGill University (Medical Department). — Students completing the Arts course and proceeding to the study of Medicine will be exempted from one year on the medical course provided that they have taken certain options in Biology and other subjects, particulars of which may be obtained on application to the registrar.

4. Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

(a) Oxford. — The following decrees were approved by Convocation of the University of Oxford under the Statute concerning Colonial and Indian Universities :

That the University of Mount Allison College be admitted to the privileges of the Statute on Colonial and Indian Universities. That any member of the University of Mount Allison College who shall have passed all the examinations at the university for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, and shall have been placed in the Class List in two subjects in the Honours Examination of the Junior Year, or in the Honours Examination of the Senior Year, shall be deemed to have taken honours as required by the provisions of Stat. Tit. II, Sect. VII, cl. 5. That any member of the University of Mount Allison College who shall have passed the examinations at the university of either the Sophomore or the Junior or the Senior Year, and shall at such examination have satisfied the examiners in Greek, shall be deemed to have shown a sufficient knowledge of Greek as required by the provisions of Stat. Tit. II, Sect. VII, cl. 12., March 15th, 1904.

Under these privileges, sophomores who qualify in Greek are exempt from Responsions, and students who qualify under Section 2 may proceed in two years to the degree examination in an Honour school.

(b) Cambridge. — By a recommendation of the Council of the Senate it was decreed that "The University of Mount Allison College, Sackville, New Brunswick, be adopted as an institution affiliated to the University of Cambridge and that graduates in Arts be entitled to be admitted to the privileges of affiliation".

Organisation. — Arts, Science, Theology, Engineering.

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., B.D., B.Sc., and B.Mus.

Affiliation. — McGill University and Nova Scotia Technical College ; Dalhousie Law School, McGill University (Medical Department) ; Oxford, Cambridge.

University of St. Joseph's College, St. Joseph.

This institution, located in the centre of an agricultural settlement, is conducted by the Congregation of the Holy Cross. In 1864, it was incorporated under the name of "the College of St. Joseph", with power to confer degrees by Act of the New Brunswick Legislature in 1868. In 1898, the original charter was amended, the name being changed to the "University of St. Joseph's College".

In 1906, Oxford University admitted the University of St. Joseph's College to the privileges of the Statute on Colonial Universities.

The educational system is based upon the text : "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom", education consisting in the harmonious development of the moral, intellectual and physical faculties.

The studies are divided into three courses : the Preparatory or Grammar-School course ; the Academic or High-School course ; and the Arts course.

English and French are taught with equal care.

The Arts course of four years enables young men profitably to pursue the special studies connected with any of the liberal professions. It comprises a complete study of English, Latin, French, Greek, Philosophy, Sciences, Mathematics, History and particularly History of Canada. Graduates of the Arts course receive, according to the scope of their studies, the degrees of Bachelor of Commercial Sciences, Bachelor of Literature, Bachelor of Sciences or Bachelor of Arts.

Organisation. — Arts, Science.

Degrees. — B.A., B.S., B.L., B.C.S., and M.A.

Affiliation. — Oxford.

PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPLY SENT BY THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.¹

1. In the Province of Quebec, higher and secondary education are provided privately by independent bodies.

The Quebec Government makes grants to the secondary schools (classical schools) and higher education institutions (universities). It also makes grants to sixteen elementary training colleges, to specialised agricultural colleges, to a school of forestry, to schools of surveying, to technical schools, etc.

In 1919-20, the schools in the province of Quebec, from the infant schools up to the universities, were attended by 533,381 pupils. The average attendance of pupils between the ages of 5 and 20 years was 75.19 per cent.

2. The principal Acts dealing with higher education passed since 1913 are : (1) Act recognising the independent existence of the University of Montreal, which had previously been a constituent college of Laval University ; (2) Act assigning a large grant to the universities and classical schools ; (3) Act endowing scholarships for young persons of merit who are considered fit to complete their professional studies in Europe ; (4) Act establishing two Art schools and two Art museums ; (5) Act instituting literature prizes ; (6) Act establishing the Historic Monuments Commission ; (7) Act sanctioning the new curriculum for lower- and higher-grade elementary schools.

4. In addition to the universities, classical schools and high schools, a number of literary, historical and scientific societies contribute to the development of intellectual life.

The province of Quebec possesses several large libraries, including those of the Laval, Quebec, Montreal and McGill Universities. Quebec has also the Library of the Legislative Assembly, the Quebec Archives, the Canadian Institute Library, the Laval Training College Library and the Morrin College Library. A number of religious communities have also in their possession valuable documents which will be of great utility to future historians.

In the offices of the provincial capital at Quebec, the Government of the province has established three departments which are of great assistance to intellectual workers. These are the Statistical Department, the Record Office and the Geographical Commission. The Quebec Record Office contains the most valuable manuscripts in America.

5. The Government has adhered to the International Convention of Geneva.

6. The intellectual relations of the province of Quebec, nine-tenths of whose population are of French extraction, are mainly concerned with France : every year large numbers of French-Canadian students go to Paris, Lyons, Lille, Strasburg, etc. to study literature, science or art. The Quebec Government encourages this tendency by the annual grant of scholarships. Brussels and Liège also receive Canadian students. The centres for English-speaking students are London, Edinburgh, Dublin, Oxford and Cambridge. The Laval, Montreal and McGill Universities have European professors — French, Belgian and English — for Literature and certain branches of Science. In 1923, the Government entrusted the Department of Fine Arts to a French artist. The head of the Quebec Art School is a former pupil of the Ecole des Beaux-Arts of Paris.

The clergy of the province of Quebec, who are almost all Catholic, send annually a certain number of students to the Universities of Rome, Paris, Lille, Friburg and Louvain.

Every effort is made by intellectual circles to instil sound conceptions on social, economic and political questions into the young and to diffuse it among the masses. This is done in

¹ This reply has been translated from the French original.

the case of young people by study circles, congresses, etc. ; social weeks are organised annually for the study of religious and social questions, and are largely attended. Congresses of school commissioners are held annually to promote educational progress.

Appendix.

1. A number of reputable publications (reviews, tracts, records) furnish intellectual workers with valuable opportunities of obtaining a hearing for their views. Such are, at Quebec, *Le Canada français*, *Le Bulletin de Recherches historiques*, *Le Bulletin de Géographie*, *L'Enseignement secondaire*, *L'Enseignement primaire*, *Educational Record*, *Le Naturaliste canadien*, *Le Terroir*, etc. ; and at Montreal, *L'Action française*, *La Revue trimestrielle*, *University Magazine*, *La Revue nationale*, *La Revue moderne*, etc.

2. The publishing trade is also very active. Numerous books dealing with history, poetry, science and the novel appear annually. The recent foundation of the David Literary Prize has created a healthy rivalry among writers in the province of Quebec.

UNIVERSITIES.

McGill University, Montreal.

McGill University owes its origin to a private endowment. It was founded by the Hon. James McGill, a leading merchant and public-spirited citizen of Montreal, who died in 1813. The four trustees appointed under his will were directly to convey the property of the bequest to the Royal Institution for the Advancement of Learning, a body which, in 1802, had been incorporated by the Legislature "for the establishment of free schools and the advancement of learning" in the province of Quebec. The conditions upon which the property was to be transferred to the Royal Institution for the Advancement of Learning were, mainly, that that institution should, within ten years after the testator's decease, erect and establish on his Burnside estate "a university or college for the purposes of education and the advancement of learning in this province", and that the college, or one of the colleges in the university, if established, should "be named and perpetually be known and distinguished by the appellation of 'McGill College' ". Owing to persistent opposition by the leaders of one section of the people to any system of governmental education and to the refusal by the Legislature to make the grants of land and money which had been promised, the proposed establishment of the provincial university by the British Government was abandoned.

In so far as the McGill College was concerned, however, the Royal Institution at once took action by applying for a Royal Charter. Such a charter was granted in 1821, and, in 1829 the work of teaching was begun in two faculties, Arts and Medicine. After a long period of financial embarrassment and administrative difficulties, in 1852 an amended charter was secured and in 1855 an era of progress and prosperity began.

By the amended charter, "the governors, principal and fellows" of the university are constituted a body politic and corporate, with all the usual rights and privileges of corporate bodies. The supreme authority, however, is vested in the Crown and is exercised by His Excellency the Governor-General of Canada for the time being, as Visitor. This is a special and important feature of the constitution, for, while it gives the university an imperial character and removes it at once from any merely local or party influence, it secures the patronage of the head of the political system of the country.

In the official reply transmitted by the Lieutenant-Governor, McGill University is called "une des plus importantes universités anglaises du Nord de l'Amérique".

Organisation. — Arts, Applied Science, Law, Medicine, Agriculture. Incorporated : College at St. Anne of Bellevue, 1907 ; Faculty of Agriculture ; School of Teachers ; Household Science. Affiliated : Four Theological colleges (Presbyterian 1865 ; Congregational 1839 ; Diocesan 1873 ; Wesleyan 1872).

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., B.C.L., D.C.L., LL.D., B.Sc., D.Sc., D.D.S., M.Sc., Mus.Bac., D.Sc., B.Arch., M.D., C.M., D. Litt., Ph.D., LL.B., LL.M., B.Com., and B.H.S.

Affiliation. — Acadia, Mount Allison, St. Francis Xavier, Alberta (Faculty of Applied Science).

University of Bishop's College, Lennoxville.

This university was founded by the Church of England in 1843 ; its present charter was signed in 1853.

Organisation. — Arts, Divinity, Medicine, Law.

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., B.D., D.D., D.C.L., Mus. Bac., Mus. Doc., and L.S.T.

Affiliation. — Oxford and Cambridge.

Laval University, Quebec.

In 1851, the Canadian bishops who had assembled at Quebec for the First Provincial Council recommended the creation as soon as possible of a Catholic French-speaking university. It was to the Séminary of Quebec that they appealed to obtain the men and money required for the undertaking. The Séminary accepted the responsibilities thus placed upon it and founded the university upon which they bestowed the name of its founder, Mgr. François de Montmorency-Laval, first Bishop of Quebec.

The Royal Charter which created the university and gave it its civil corporate status was signed in London by Her Majesty Queen Victoria on December 8th, 1852. In the following year, on March 6th, 1853, His Holiness Pope Pius IX issued an apostolic brief which gave the Archbishop of Quebec power to confer degrees in theology on students of the university. It was not until 1876, however, that Rome granted Laval University its pontifical charter and accorded it canonical erection by the bull "Inter varias sollicitudines"¹.

In 1876 also, Laval University created at Montreal, in compliance with a decision of the Sacred Congregation of the Propaganda, a branch consisting of a number of chairs subsidiary to its Quebec faculties. This step was regarded as necessary for a variety of reasons, among which was the great distance between the two towns, which prevented a large number of students from attending Laval.

¹ In virtue of the Royal Charter and of the Canonical Foundation Bull, the general organisation of the university is as follows : 1. The Royal Visitor. — This office is always held by the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Quebec. He has the right of veto on all regulations and appointments and on all laws, regulations and decrees pronounced by the University Council. — 2. The Cardinal Protector of the University at the Holy See. — This office is exercised by His Eminence the Cardinal Prefect *pro tempore* of the Congregation of Propaganda. He is entrusted with the protection of the university's interests at Rome. — 3. The Apostolic Chancellor. — This office is always held by the Archbishop of Quebec. He permanently represents the pontifical authorities in the University Council, presides over the Higher Council of Bishops, and appoints the professors in the Faculty of Theology. — 4. The Higher Council of Bishops. — It is composed of all the archbishops and bishops of the province of Quebec. It deals with all matters of faith and morality connected with the organisation and teaching of the university. — 5. The Rector. — He presides over the council and over university assemblies and ceremonies. In conformity with the Royal Charter, the president of the council is also entitled to a vote in the council and has the casting vote. He carries out the decisions of the council or sees that they are carried out. He exercises general supervision over all the staff and property of the university. — 6. The University Council. — It is composed of the Rector, of the directors of the Quebec Séminary and of the three senior professors of the faculties of Theology, Law, Medicine and Arts respectively. — Under the University Charter, a majority of the members of the council is necessary to constitute a legal quorum. The university council is responsible for the general organisation and direction of the university in religious, pedagogic and disciplinary matters. It is jointly responsible with the Rector for all appointments which are not in the hands of the Apostolic Chancellor. — 7. The Councils of the Faculties. — In each of the faculties there is a council consisting of all the professors in the faculty.

On February 2nd, 1889, the character of the Montreal branch was considerably modified by the brief "Jamdudum"; this brief rendered it more independent of Quebec. Finally, on May 8th, 1919, on the request of the Archbishop and the Bishop of the Ecclesiastical Province of Montreal, the Sacred Congregation of Seminaries and Universities authorised the foundation at Montreal of a completely independent university, and on February 14th, 1920, the Provincial Legislature of Quebec established the Montreal University. On that date the Montreal branch of Laval University ceased to exist.

On the affiliation and aggregation of institutions teaching classics¹, the university prepares the regulations and curricula for the *baccalauréat* jointly with the affiliated colleges, but it retains control over examinations on the essential subjects in the course of study.

On affiliating establishments for secondary, modern and primary education, the university draws up the curricula and controls the examinations on the principal subjects of study.

Every year since 1859, with but few exceptions, public courses of a fairly advanced nature have been given in the faculty of Arts at the headquarters of the new university. Lecturers drawn from the professors of the university, and even occasionally from outside the university, have given courses regularly or from time to time on Apologetics, Public Law of the Church, Canadian History, Universal History, Letters and Science.

Organisation. — Faculty of Arts (Department of Letters and Department of Sciences), Theology, Law, Medicine. Affiliated Organisations: Commercial courses at Montreal, 1907; School of Surveying and Forestry (embodied in the Faculty of Letters, 1919); School of Agriculture of Ste. Anne de la Locatière (1911).

Degrees. — M.A., B.A., B.S., B.L., Ph.D., Ph.L., Ph.B., M. D., M. B., LL. B., LL.L., LL.D., D.B., D.L., D.D., C.L.B., C.L.L., and C.L.D.

University of Montreal, Montreal.

The University of Montreal is the former branch of Laval University².

In 1876, on a request made by Mgr. Bourget, Bishop of Montreal, to obtain a Catholic university in that city, the Sacred Congregation of the Propaganda proposed that Laval University should establish a branch at Montreal, which would give the same teaching as at Quebec. A beginning was made in 1878 with instruction in the faculties of Theology and Law, in 1879 in the faculty of Medicine, and in 1887 in the faculty of Arts. Under the "Jamdudum" apostolic constitution of February 2nd, 1889, the Montreal branch became to all intents and purposes independent of the Quebec organisation. It continued to receive its degrees from the University Council of Quebec, but it enjoyed complete local administrative powers.

In 1919 and 1920, the branch was granted complete autonomy in fact and in law. From the point of view of the Church, it has been governed since May 8th, 1919, under a rescript preparatory to a pontifical bull³. It was granted a Charter by the Provincial Legislature of Quebec on February 14th, 1920.

On beginning their studies for entering any one of the public professions, students are advised to distinguish between professional institutions and university faculties.

Organisation. — Theology, Law, Medicine, Letters, Sciences, Household Economy, Drawing, Sacred Music and Profane Music. Amalgamated Schools: Veterinary Medicine, Pharmacy, Social, Economic and Political Sciences. Affiliated Schools: Polytechnic School,

¹ "Affiliation" is the term applied in the case of institutions situated within the province of Quebec and "aggregation" in the case of those lying outside the province.

² See the historical sketch of Laval University.

³ The Montreal University "Year-book" for 1923-1924 provides information regarding the Catholic universities of Canada under the heading "Council Recommendations" (the First Council of Canada was held at Quebec in 1909).

Oka Agricultural Institute, School of Higher Commercial Studies, School of Girls' Secondary Teaching, Conservatory of Music. Annexed Schools : Institute of Modern Teaching, School of Medicine, School of Drawing, School of Household Economy, School of Sacred Music.

Degrees. — Bachelor, Master and Doctor.

ONTARIO.

EXTRACTS FROM THE PRINTED DOCUMENTS SENT BY THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.

UNIVERSITIES.

University of Toronto, Toronto.

The movement which ended in the establishment of the University of Toronto as the centre of the educational system of the province of Ontario originated with the first Governor of Upper Canada, who repeatedly expressed his conviction, both before his departure from England and also during his term of office (1792-1796), that the best interests alike of the Government and of the inhabitants demanded the establishment of a university in Upper Canada. It was not, however, during his administration that the project assumed a definite form.

In 1797, the Legislative Council and House of Assembly, in a joint address to King George III, asked "that His Majesty would be graciously pleased to direct his Government in the province to appropriate a certain portion of the waste lands of the Crown as a fund for the establishment and support of a respectable grammar-school for each district thereof ; and also a college or university for the instruction of youth in the different branches of liberal knowledge ". To this address a favourable answer was sent. For the foundation of the university nothing was done until 1827, when a Royal Charter was granted for the establishment at or near York, as Toronto was then called, of a college "with the style and privileges of a university", to be called "King's College".

Owing not only to the character of the endowment but also to the terms of the Charter, which required all the members of the faculty to be adherents of one particular religious denomination, the opening of the college was delayed for fourteen years. In consequence of public representations on the sectarian character of the college, all religious tests were abolished by an amended charter which passed the two Houses of the Provincial Legislature and received the Royal Assent in 1837. In 1842, faculties of Arts, Medicine, Law and Divinity were established. In 1849, an Act of the Legislature effected important modifications in the constitution of King's College, whereby all instruction in Divinity was discontinued and a larger measure of public control of the affairs of the university instituted, through the formation of a Senate, of which a number of the members were appointed by the Crown. The name was now changed from the "University of King's College" to the "University of Toronto".

In 1887, both the University of Toronto and the University College were remodelled by the University Act. The main object of the new legislation was to secure a more uniform standard of higher education by the union of the various denominational universities of Ontario with the Provincial University. Since the proclamation of the Act, Victoria University at Coburg, representing the Methodist body, has entered into federation with the University of Toronto. The governing body of this institution is now represented on the Senate of the University of Toronto, its graduates elect representatives to the same body, and by the removal of the faculty and students of Victoria University to Toronto, where college buildings have been erected to the north of Queen's Park, the union of the two universities has been effected.

The faculty of the University College, by the Act of 1887, consists of professors and lecturers in Classic Languages and Literature (including lectures in Ancient History), Oriental Languages, English, French, German and Moral Philosophy.

A faculty of Medicine in the University of Toronto was established in 1887.

In 1888, a stimulus was given to the study of scientific methods of farming by the affiliation of the Ontario Agricultural College and the adoption of a curriculum of study for the degree of Bachelor of Science of Agriculture.

One of the most important events of recent years was the federation of the University of Trinity College ¹.

In certain cases, foreign students may present themselves for examination in their language instead of Greek, French, German, Spanish or Italian when the language and the curriculum in that language have been approved by the Senate. The examination in an approved language consists of two years, similar in character to those in English.

The Students' Administrative Council has developed from the Parliament of Undergraduates, which was organised in 1905, with a large membership, to afford students of all the colleges and faculties the privilege of discussing in open debate questions of interest to them. The council, as now recognised by the university authorities, has the following duties : to represent the students on all public occasions in all matters pertaining to their interests ; to afford a recognised means of communication between the students and the university or civic authorities ; to promote inter-university relationships and to cultivate a university *esprit de corps* among the students of all colleges and faculties.

An important step in the growing power of the council was accomplished during the session 1914-15, when the Caput of the university delegated to the council full authority to deal with all matters concerning student discipline within the University ².

Organisation. — Applied Sciences, Engineering, Medicine, Education, Forestry, Music, Household Science. Federated : Victoria University ; the University of Trinity College ; the three denominational colleges (Wycliffe College, 1879, Divinity, Anglican ; Knox College, 1843, Divinity, Presbyterian ; St. Michael's College, 1852, Roman Catholic, Letters). Affiliated: Ontario College of Pharmacy, 1871 ; 1884 ; Ontario Veterinary College, 1862 ; Royal College of Dental Surgeons, 1868 ; St. Hilda's College ; College of Music ; Conservatory of Music (all these colleges are in Toronto) ; Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, 1912 ; Conservatory of Music, Hamilton ; Alma College, St. Thomas ; Ontario Ladies' College, Whitby ; Western Canada College, Belleville.

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., Ph.D., LL.M., LL.D., Mus. Bac., Mus. Doc., M.B., M.D., B.A.Sc. C.E., E.E., M.E., B.Pæd., D.Pæd., B.Sc.A., B.S.A., B.Sc.P.F.E., D.D.S., PHM.B., B.V.Sc. D.V.Sc.

Affiliation. — Oxford, Cambridge and Dublin.

Victoria University, Toronto.

This college, incorporated by Royal Charter in 1836, with the title of "Upper Canada Academy", became the University of Victoria College in 1841. In 1871, the faculty of Theology was established. In 1892, Victoria University was federated with the University of Toronto.

¹ Convocation. — Convocation consists of the whole body of graduates of the University, in all faculties. Except indirectly through its elected representatives, no part of the management of the university is exercised by it as a whole. It elects the Chancellor, and, in divisions according to faculty, it elects members of Senate as its representatives in Arts, Medicine, Law, Applied Science and Engineering and Agriculture. Any question relating to university affairs may be discussed by it and a vote taken. The result of such discussion is communicated to the Senate, which must consider the representation made and return to Convocation its conclusion thereon.

² The council is responsible for Theatre Night, the Glee Club, the University Medical Society, and Inter-University Debating, and jointly responsible with the Women Students' Administrative Council for the publication of the '*Varsity, Torontonensis*', and the "Students' Directory".

In Theology, Victoria remains entirely autonomous, while enjoying many privileges in connection with the equipment of the provincial university. This college has been, from the first, broad and unsectarian in spirit, opening its classes, its examinations, its degrees, and almost all its prizes and scholarships to students from any Christian Church, welcoming all who wish to prepare for any form of Christian service at home or in the mission-field abroad.

The development of the faculty of Theology as well as that of Arts has been very great, especially since federation. The present staff in Theology consists of ten professors and three lecturers, giving their whole time to college work. In the fifty years of its history, more than fifteen hundred men have passed from the class-rooms of the faculty into the Christian ministry and many to the service of the Church in home and foreign mission-fields.

The Victoria College co-operates with Knox College, which was established in Toronto in 1844 by the Synod of the Presbyterian Church in Canada, then called the "Free Church for the Training of Young Men for the Ministry".

Organisation. — Arts and Theology.

Co-operates with Knox College, Presbyterian, and the Canadian School of Missions.

Degrees. — B.D. and D.D.

Affiliation. — University of Toronto.

University of Trinity College, Toronto.

Trinity College, which entered into federation with the University of Toronto in 1904, was founded by the Honourable and Right Rev. John Strachan, D.D., LL.D., first Bishop of Toronto, one of the founders and at one time President of King's College. It was established, after the secularisation of King's College in 1850, for the purpose of combining religious instruction with a liberal education. In 1851, Trinity College was incorporated by the Legislature of Canada. In 1852, a Royal Charter conferred upon it university powers, which were exercised in all faculties down to 1904, under the title of the "University of Trinity College". Since 1904, Trinity College has conferred degrees only in the faculty of Divinity. For a certain period, State aid was granted to it in common with the other universities of the province, but this was subsequently withdrawn. In 1874, the question of federation was mooted, but no serious attempt at a solution was made till about the year 1885; and it was not till nearly twenty years later that satisfactory terms of federation were finally concluded.

Under the federation agreement, the degrees in Arts are conferred by the University of Toronto, the instruction being given by Trinity College in all the college subjects, and by the university in the remaining subjects of the Arts curriculum, Trinity College students having free access to the university classes and laboratories. In the faculty of Divinity, Trinity College continues to act as an independent university, carrying on the training of its theological students and conferring its own degrees of Licentiate of Theology, Bachelor of Divinity and Doctor of Divinity.

In the Calendar it is stated that "an outstanding feature of Trinity College and one for which it has been famous for three-quarters of a century is its residence system. Nearly all the students of Trinity live in the college buildings, where they enjoy the privileges and benefits of collegiate residence. The history of Oxford, of Cambridge and of Trinity College, Dublin, afford striking illustration of the necessity of collegiate residence in the best university education".

Religious instruction for all its students in Arts having been one of the chief reasons for the foundation of Trinity College, this still remains one of its distinguishing features, the federation agreement with the University of Toronto preserving this right in perpetuity to all students of Trinity College. Accordingly, Trinity College makes religious teaching and worship a

necessary part of the life and studies of every student. By special agreement with the University of Toronto, certain subjects of the Department of Religious Knowledge are included in each year of the Arts curriculum, not as extra work but grouped with other prescribed studies as optional subjects. Though the college belongs to the Church of England, it is open without religious tests to members of other communions.

Organisation. — Arts and Divinity.

Degrees. — L.Th., B.D., and D.D.

Affiliation. — University of Toronto.

Western University, London.

Incorporated by an Act of the Provincial Legislature in 1878 as a college in connection with the Church of England, the university has become, under the provision of an amending Act of 1908, absolutely undenominational in its government, which is under provincial and municipal control.

Organisation. — Arts, Medicine and Public Health, Music. Affiliated : Huron College at London, 1863, Divinity, Anglican ; Assumption College ; Ursuline College ; Conservatory of Music at Brantford.

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., M.D., LL.D., D.Sc., D.Ph., and Mus. Bac.

Queen's University, Kingston.

Queen's University owes its origin to the desire of the Synod of the Presbyterian Church in Canada, in connection with the Church of Scotland, for a ministry trained within the country. As early as 1832, the Provincial Government had been petitioned "to endow without delay an institution or professorship for the education and training of young men for the ministry in connection with the Synod". As this and other representations failed in their object, steps were taken by the Synod to found a College at Kingston, on the lines of the Scottish National Universities. In October 1841, a Royal Charter was issued by Her Majesty Queen Victoria for the establishment of Queen's College, Kingston, and the first classes were opened in March 1842.

Queen's led the way in co-education. As early as 1870, special classes in English and other subjects were formed for women, but courses leading to a degree were not thrown open to them until 1878-79. In 1880, co-education was extended to the medical course, and in 1883 a separate Women's Medical College was opened and affiliated with Queen's. It was closed, however, in 1894, as similar facilities were offered in Toronto and elsewhere.

Organisation. — Arts, Sciences, Engineering, Medicine, Theology.

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., B.Sc., D.Sc., M.Sc., M.D., Nen M.B., LL.D., D.D., B.D., B.Pæd., D.Pæd., and B.Com.

University of Ottawa, Ottawa.

The University of Ottawa, conducted by the Oblate Fathers of Mary Immaculate, began with the infancy and developed with the growth of the city. Incorporated in 1849, this institution received, in 1861, the title of "College of Ottawa", and, in 1866, was granted the power of conferring university degrees. All the degrees conferred are officially recognised in the Dominion and throughout the British Empire.

By a brief dated February 5th, 1889, the Sovereign Pontiff Leo XIII raised the University of Ottawa to the rank of a Catholic University, with all the privileges bestowed on such an institution.

The Government Museum, the Dominion Observatory, and the Parliament Library furnish professors and students with the means of elucidating questions in literature, science and art. Moreover, the students enjoy the advantage of occasional attendance at the debates of the Dominion Parliament, and thus become familiar with those political contests in which they may afterwards be called upon to take part.

Testimonials of good moral character are required of applicants from other colleges. Both junior and senior students are under the immediate supervision of Oblate Fathers. No book, pamphlet, or newspaper shall be introduced into the university without having been previously examined and approved of by the Prefect of Discipline.

It is stated in the Calendar: "It is deemed opportune to draw the attention of the public to the dual course in the university. In view of confused ideas and incorrect assertions on this point, it may be well to affirm clearly and authoritatively that the university classical course is neither exclusively in English nor in French. It is therefore left to the choice of parents and students to take the classical course in one or other of the two languages. In the English course, the language of instruction and translation is English. In that course, out of the twenty hours of class a week, three hours only are given to French. Thirteen hours a week in the French course are given to Latin, Greek, French and History, for which the language of instruction and translation is French. The remaining seven hours in this course are given to the teaching of English Mathematics and Natural Sciences, for which branches the language of instruction is English. The University of Ottawa, true to the idea of its founders, is Catholic before all else, and affords the youth of both languages educational advantages that prepare for the study of the professions. Both languages are official in the administration of the institution as well as in communications with parents."

The university's Calendars and reports are published in English and in French.

Organisation. — Complete French course and complete English course. Arts, Law, Philosophy, Theology, Commerce.

Degrees. — LL.D., D.D., B.Ph., D.Ph., B.A., and M.A.

McMaster University, Toronto.

In April 1887, a Bill was passed by the Ontario Legislative Assembly uniting Toronto Baptist College and Woodstock College under the corporate name of "McMaster University". In September of the same year, through the decease of the Hon. William McMaster, the corporation of McMaster University came into possession of about \$900,000 endowment for the purpose of Christian education, as set forth in McMaster's will and in the Charter. In accordance with the Charter, the board of governors and the Senate entered upon the performance of their duties in November 1887. At the Educational Convention held in the city of Guelph in March 1888, it was decided by the representatives of the regular Baptist churches of Ontario and Quebec that McMaster University should be organised and developed as a permanently independent institution in Toronto, and that Woodstock College should be maintained, with increased efficiency, in Woodstock. Woodstock College was maintained as a Christian school of learning to provide for boys and young men a thorough and practical general education. It was also decided that a Ladies' College should be established in Toronto, and opened for the reception of students in September 1888. The Arts work of the university was inaugurated at the beginning of the academic year 1890-91.

The following are the means of self-help afforded to ministerial students, whether in Arts or in Theology, and the method by which the faculty administers the fund placed at its disposal

for this purpose by the board of governors : 1. All available opportunities for preaching and for missionary services during the college session and the summer vacation of four and a-half months are offered those ministerial students who have been approved by the Ministerial Committee ; these arrangements are made in co-operation with the churches and the Home Mission Board. 2. Students during term-time are not expected to accept Sunday duty at churches except under the direction of the faculty ; and the Ministerial Committee deems it inexpedient for students, save in exceptional cases, to officiate oftener than once a month. 3. It is not expected that students having little or no experience in regular preaching or pastoral work shall be appointed to remunerative fields while pursuing their first year of study in any department of the university.

Organisation. — Arts, Theology. Affiliated : Brandon College, at Brandon, 1899, Arts, Theology ; Academy of Commerce, Music ; Woodstock College and Moulton College, separated from the university, are represented in McMaster's Senate.

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., B.Sc., B.Th., and B.D.

Relations. — Oxford, Cambridge, London, New York State.

MANITOBA, WINNIPEG.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPLY SENT BY THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.

1. The University of Manitoba and the Manitoba Agricultural College, which is affiliated with the university, provide extension lecture courses which serve to stimulate and in some sense to direct intellectual life in the province.

2. No laws have been promulgated nor have any pamphlets been issued in this province since 1913.

3. The best source of information relating to statistics, salaries, etc., is the " Statistical Report on Education in Canada ", 1921. This report is published by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Ottawa, Canada.

4. Scholarships are offered in connection with the various courses in the university.

5. The Provincial Government has not adhered to any international convention relating to intellectual work or to education.

6. The province of Manitoba annually sends a Rhodes Scholar to Oxford University and this year will send its second I.O.D.E. Scholar to Oxford. Nothing has been done in the way of exchanging professors with institutions in other countries, but occasionally lectures are given at Manitoba University by professors from universities in the United States, and professors from Manitoba in turn visit these universities in the United States to deliver lectures to their students.

UNIVERSITY.

The University of Manitoba, Winnipeg.

The University of Manitoba was established by Act of the Manitoba Legislature in 1877 " for the purpose of raising the standard of higher education in the province and enabling all denominations and classes to obtain academic degrees ". The government of the university was vested in a Chancellor, a Vice-Chancellor and university council, with powers, as a " body politic and incorporate ", to receive, hold and sell property, to arrange courses of study, to hold examinations and to grant degrees. The Act provided for the affiliation of colleges and for the granting of degrees in Divinity by those colleges to students who should have obtained recognised academic standing in Arts subjects. The university was definitely reorganised as a provincial university in 1917.

Organisation. — Arts, Science, Law, Medicine, Engineering, Architecture, Pharmacy, Agriculture.

Affiliated : Manitoba Medical College, 1883-84 ; Manitoba Law School, 1914 ; Manitoba Agricultural College, 1903 ; Manitoba College of Pharmacy ; and four theological colleges : Wesley College, 1877 (Methodist) ; St. John's College, 1866 (Anglican) ; St. Boniface College (Roman Catholic) ; Manitoba College (Presbyterian).

Degrees. — B.A., M.A., B.Sc., M.D., C.M., B.C.E., E.E.E., M.C.E., M.E.E., B.M.E., B.Arch., Phm.B., B.S.A., LL.B., and LL.D.

SASKATCHEWAN.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPLY SENT BY THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.

1. The State administrative organisations of the province of Saskatchewan which take part in directing intellectual life in so far as higher education is concerned are : (a) the Provincial Department of Education, and (b) the Provincial University.

Apart from the work of these two agencies, there are no separate institutions devoted to the study of educational questions and to the educational movement. In view of this fact, there are no official publications which would provide the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation with the information required.

2. The chief official statistical data relating to education generally are contained in the Annual Report of the Department of Education and of the president of the university.

3. The main library of the province is that at the Legislative Buildings in the capital, Regina. The Museum is for the present located at the Provincial Normal School, also in the capital.

By the War Memorial Scholarships Act (Chapter 117 of the Revised Statutes of Saskatchewan, 1920), the Lieutenant-Governor in Council is authorised to grant annually three scholarships of \$1,200 each to such students or teachers, usually resident in Saskatchewan, as he may designate, for the purpose of assisting them to follow post-graduate courses of study in the city of Paris, France¹. The scholarships are granted on the terms and conditions and under the regulations prescribed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, and the cost is chargeable to the Consolidated Fund.

The institutions for higher education are the secondary schools of the province — collegiate institutes, high schools, and continuation schools — and the Provincial University.

In so far as scholarships are concerned, the following may be mentioned : the Rhodes Scholarships, awarded to a student each year for the province in accordance with the conditions of the Rhodes bequest ; and the Paris Scholarships.

5. The Government has not adhered to any international convention relating to educational work or to education.

6. In the secondary schools of the province, and in the university, provision is made for instruction in Latin, Greek, French and German. So far, no provision has been made for the exchange of professors and students. The university, however, provides for *ad eundem* degrees to applicants from other universities whose standing entitles them to consideration.

¹ The Paris Scholarships are open to men and women engaged in study, teaching, and other educational or professional work in the province of Saskatchewan and who intend to devote themselves to teaching.

The following are some of the regulations governing the selection of candidates for these scholarships : They must be : (a) British subjects and residents of Saskatchewan for at least two years ; (b) graduates of a recognised Canadian or other British university or any other university or college specially approved for this purpose ; (c) must produce satisfactory evidence of proficiency in French reading and conversation sufficient to enable the applicant to continue with profit the course intended to be taken in France.

University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon.

In 1903, an Ordinance to establish a university for the North-West Territories was passed. The Ordinance contained special provisions against the introduction of sectarianism and undue political influence into the management of the university. The Act establishing the University of Saskatchewan was passed in 1907. It provided for a Convocation consisting of all graduates of any university in His Majesty's Dominions who were actually residing in the province for three months prior to the first meeting and who applied for registration. Four hundred and thirteen names were placed upon the register. After careful enquiry it was unanimously decided by the Senate and the governors to make provision within the university for instruction in Agriculture. This decision was cordially approved by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council and the Legislature. When this question had been settled, the governors selected a site for the university in Saskatoon.

The College of Agriculture was opened for students in October 1912, the School of Engineering in October 1912, the College of Law in September 1913, the School of Pharmacy in 1914 and the School of Accounting in 1917. The summer school was organised in 1917.

The University of Oxford has admitted the University of Saskatchewan to the privileges granted to Colonial Universities by the Statute of Affiliation.

Saskatchewan University granted affiliation to the following provincial institutions : Emmanuel College, St. Chad's College, the Presbyterian College, the Normal Schools, the collegiate institutes and high schools, the Institute of Chartered Accountants, the Pharmaceutical Association, the Association of Architects, the Dental Council, the College of Physicians and Surgeons, the Association of Registered Nurses and the Veterinary Association.

The Presbyterian Synod decided to establish a Theological Hall in affiliation with the university and began its erection in 1913. The University Act gives the university full power and authority to grant such degrees in the several faculties in different branches of knowledge as the Senate may from time to time determine. The Act reserves for the university the sole right to confer degrees in this province, except in Theology.

The duty of maintaining discipline within each college rests with the faculty, subject to the approval of the Council.

In order to be eligible to represent the university in an athletic team, a student must have attained a standing satisfactory to the faculty in which he is registered.

Facilities for physical training are provided by the university, and, as far as these facilities will permit, all students are required to take some form of physical training. Participation in sports, military drill and gymnastic exercises are approved forms.

Organisation. — Arts and Science (including schools of Pharmacy and Accounting), Law, Agriculture ("in this respect" (agriculture) "Saskatchewan stands first in Canada" : president's report, 1921-22), Engineering, Education, Veterinary Medicine. Affiliated : Three theological colleges : Emmanuel College, 1879 (Anglican), and Presbyterian College, 1912, at Saskatoon ; St. Chad's College, 1907, at Regina ; the Collegiate Institute ; at Moose Jaw, Moosomin, Prince Albert, Regina et Yorkton ; and two Provincial Normal Schools.

Degrees. — B.A., B.Sc., B.S.Agric., B.Sc.Eng., Bac.Sc.Educ., B.Sc.Acc., B.Sc.Pharm., B.Laws, LL.B., M.A., M.Sc., M.Surg., D.Med., D.Dental Surgery.

Affiliation. — Oxford.

ALBERTA.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPLY SENT BY THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.

1. Higher education in the province of Alberta is under the direction of that branch of the Government known as the Department of Education.

Indirectly it controls the state university (University of Alberta) since the university estimates are presented to the Legislature as a part of the vote of the Department of Education. Some work in the study of educational questions has been undertaken, both by the normal schools and the University of Alberta. The latter now grants a degree in Education. So far certain tests for the estimating of the knowledge acquired by pupils is all that has been published in the field of educational research.

3 (c). Salaries of university professors vary from \$2,500 to \$4,500 per annum ; normal-school instructors from \$2,500 to \$3,200 per annum ; and secondary-school teachers from \$1,600 to \$2,000 per annum.

6 (b). The Provincial University has affiliation relationships with institutions in Great Britain and, as a member of the Congress of Universities of the British Empire, accepts the standards of that body. It is also a member of the Association of Canadian Universities.

6 (c). Nothing has been done thus far in the matter of either professors or students. Of course, a limited number of students go to Oxford under the terms of the Rhodes Trust.

UNIVERSITY.

University of Alberta, Edmonton.

The University of Alberta was created by an Act of Legislature of the province passed at the first session after a provincial autonomy had been granted (1906) ; that is, the Act created the machinery by which the university could be brought into existence. By this Act, the university was empowered to undertake the organisation and development of the teaching faculties, to affiliate colleges, and, generally, to undertake all work relating to an institution of higher learning. An amendment to the Act, passed during the session of the Legislature in 1907, authorised the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, as a preliminary step to the organisation of the university, to appoint the first president, to whom was to be given the responsibility, in conjunction with the Senate, of organising and developing the university scheme. Under the Act, all resident graduates of British and Canadian universities were entitled to become members of the University of Alberta by registering before a fixed date. Three hundred and sixty-four graduates, representing all the Canadian and many of the British universities, registered, so that a large and representative body constituted the first convocation.

The first session of the university opened on September 23rd, 1908. The total registration for the session was forty-five, four of whom were students taking graduate courses in the department of Physics. At the second session of the Second Legislature, November 1910, a comprehensive measure reorganising in large part the government of the university was introduced and passed into law.

The courses of students in the university are open to men and women on equal footing. Except under special circumstances, no student under sixteen years of age will be admitted to the first year, or under seventeen to the second year. Students are classified as graduate, undergraduate, conditioned, partial and special.

Graduate students are those who hold the Bachelor's degree (B.A. or B.Sc.) and are either pursuing special studies in advanced courses or have been formally admitted, upon the recommendation of the Committee on Graduate Studies, to candidacy for the Master's degree. Undergraduates are matriculated students who are taking a full undergraduate course leading to a degree. In order to become undergraduates, candidates must have passed the full matriculation examination of the university or some other equivalent examination.

Conditioned students are those who, having failed in not more than two subjects of their matriculation examination, are actually taking a full undergraduate course leading to a degree,

and are entitled to obtain undergraduate standing on completing their matriculation. For students who are deficient in the language subjects and are admitted as conditioned students, special preparatory classes are provided. Students are advised, however, that the additional work required in taking these preparatory classes constitutes a handicap which should be avoided if possible.

Partial students are students who are proceeding to a degree but who are not registered for a full undergraduate course, or who, during the session, miss two courses.

Special students are those who, not belonging to one of the above classes of students, are pursuing the study of particular subjects. Such students may, subject to the approval of the Committee on Admissions, attend classes without previous examination, but any classes so taken cannot be credited towards a degree.

Organisation. — Arts and Sciences, Applied Science, Agriculture, Medicine, Dentistry, Law ; Schools of Pharmacy and Accounting. Affiliated : Three denominational colleges : Alberta College, 1908-11 (Methodist) (Theology, Commerce, Music) ; Robertson College, 1910 (Presbyterian) (Theology) ; St. Aidan's College, 1919 (Anglican).

Degrees. — B.A., B.Sc., M.A., B.S.A., M.Sc., LL.B., Phm.B., B.D., and LL.D.

Affiliation. — Oxford, McGill and Toronto.

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPLY SENT BY THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR.

The chief administrative organisations which take part in directing intellectual life in this province are the Provincial Department of Education, the University of British Columbia, the normal schools, the high schools and the elementary schools.

The salaries of educational workers are as follows : University professors, from \$2,500 to \$8,000 a year ; normal-school instructors, from \$2,520 to \$3,600 a year ; inspectors of schools, from \$2,400 to \$3,300 a year ; high-school teachers from \$1,200 to \$4,000 a year ; and elementary-school teachers, from \$780 to \$3,500 a year.

The following is a list of some of the principal scientific, literary, and artistic institutions in the province : the Natural History Society, the Arts and Crafts Society, the Astronomical Society, the Historical Society, the Engineering Society, and the Provincial Library and Archives.

Intellectual relations with other countries have been organised through the National Lectureship scheme, the National Council of Education, the interchange of teachers and inspectors, Travelling Scholarships for Normal Schools, and through instructors, agricultural supervisors, and inspectors of schools.

Information regarding the educational system may be obtained from the "Manual of School Law", the "Year-Book" and Courses of Study.

UNIVERSITY.

The University of British Columbia, Vancouver.

The establishment of a university in British Columbia was first advocated by Superintendent Jessop in 1877, when he called public attention to the urgent need for providing the youth of the province with an education which would adequately equip them for their various work in the province. In 1890, the Provincial Legislature passed an Act establishing a body politic and corporate named the "University of British Columbia". The first convocation was held in Victoria in August 1890. There were present seventy certified members of convocation, who elected three members of Senate.

In 1891, the Act was amended by the addition of a clause requiring a meeting of the Senate to be held within one month after the election of senators by convocation. At the meeting of the Senate, a quorum failed to assemble, and the first attempt to establish a university failed. There being no immediate prospect of a provincial university, some friends of higher education conceived the idea of bringing a university education — at least in part — within the reach of the youth of the province by establishing relations with some one of the existing Canadian universities. Owing to their efforts, an Act was passed in 1894 which empowered the affiliation of high schools in the province to recognised Canadian universities, and this was supplemented in 1896 by an Act providing for the incorporation of affiliated high schools as colleges of the universities to which they were affiliated.

In 1902, an extension of affiliation was granted to cover the second year in Arts. In 1908, a course was further extended to include the third year in Arts. When the University of British Columbia opened its doors in the autumn of 1915, the connection of the province with McGill University in higher education — a connection which had existed for a period of sixteen years and was alike creditable to McGill and advantageous to the province — was brought to a close. Meanwhile efforts for the establishment of a provincial university have been renewed, and in 1907 the Minister of Education took definite steps to establish a university by introducing a University Endowment Act, which was passed by the Legislature.

The University of British Columbia is the integral part of the public educational system of the province. As such, it completes the work begun in the public and high schools. By prescribing a large number of studies during the first years of undergraduate work, and by leaving a wide choice under a definite system to the student during his final years, the university endeavours to give a wise measure of direction and at the same time to encourage individual initiative and special development.

Organisation. — Arts, Applied Science, Agriculture. Affiliated : Victoria College (for the first two years in Arts).

Degrees. — B.A. and B.Sc.

Summary.

Faculties and Schools.

In examining the constituent parts of the twenty-three universities, I have been able to divide them as follows, under the title of faculties, departments or schools. I have classified them in alphabetical order ; the figures in parentheses indicate the number of universities having such a faculty, department or school (mentioned by the items).

Accounting	(1)	Household Science	(1)
Agriculture	(6)	Law — Partial course in Law	(11)
Applied Science	(6)	Literature	(1)
Architecture	(2)	Medicine	(9)
Arts	(21)	Medicine and Public Health	(11)
Arts and Science	(1)	Veterinary Medicine	(1)
Commercial	(2)	Music	(1)
Dentistry	(2)	Religious and Profane Music	(1)
Divinity	(4)	Pharmacy	(13)
Domestic Science	(1)	Philosophy	(1)
Drawing	(1)	Preparatory	(1)
Education	(2)	Science	(7)
Engineering	(17)	Theology	(8)
Forestry	(1)	School of Pharmacy	(1)
		School of Accounting	(1)

Degrees.

The following degrees can be obtained in the university (the figures in parentheses show the number of universities that confer them) :

Baccalaureale.

Architecture	(2)	Law	(3)
Arts	(20)	Letters	(6)
Arts and Science	(1)	Music	(4)
Civil Engineering	(1)	Medicine	(4)
Civil Law	(4)	Pedagogics	(2)
Civil Service	(1)	Pharmacy.....	(4)
Commerce	(1)	Philosophy	(2)
Divinity	(7)	Science	(15)
Engineering	(1)	Surgery.....	(2)
Electrical Engineering	(2)	Sciences and Arts.....	(1)
Forestry	(1)	Sc. Forestry.....	(1)
Household Services	(1)	Theology.....	(2)
		Veterinary Science	(1)

Master.

Arts	(18)	Divinity	(7)
Arts and Science	(1)	Letters	(2)
Civil Engineering	(1)	Philosophy	(1)
Electrical	(1)	Science	(6)

Licenciate.

Letters	(1)	Sc. Forestry	(1)
Medicine	(1)	Theology.....	(1)

Doctorate.

Civil Law	(4)	Pedagogics	(2)
Divinity	(7)	Philosophy	(4)
Letters	(7)	Science	(7)
Music	(3)	Surgery.....	(3)
		Veterinary Science	(1)

APPENDIX.

THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES.

On the joint invitation of McGill and Toronto, representatives of seventeen Canadian universities met at Montreal in June 1911 to make preparations for sending delegates to the Congress of British Empire Universities which was to be held in London in 1912.

During the discussions the delegates unanimously recognised the many advantages of such a meeting. Accordingly, it was agreed to authorise the summoning of a new assembly

at some future date. This second assembly met, after an interval of four years, at Toronto in 1915. A number of subjects, including matriculation, duration of courses, the equivalent recognition of degrees, and the relations between the professional organisations and the universities, were discussed at considerable length. It was further decided at this meeting to set up a body to continue the work begun and to promote further meetings at fixed dates.

A provisional constitution was adopted at the third conference, held at McGill in 1916.

The body referred to above is to receive the name of the "National Conference of Canadian Universities".

The ideal implied in this name has not yet been realised, and it is for our committee of enquiry to do what is still required.

It would be necessary to fix the number of delegates to which each university is entitled. This number will be calculated on the dual basis of the number of students and the number of faculties.

The next three meetings were held at Ottawa in 1917, 1918 and 1919¹.

The Abbé Emile Chartier, of Montreal, presided over the 1918 meeting. He made an earnest appeal on behalf of the national union and in particular pleaded for higher education founded on moral and Christian culture; in order, as he expressed it at the conclusion of his speech, "that young Canadians might become honourable citizens and true believers".

The attention of anyone reading the reports of these various meetings is arrested by two facts: (1) the interest taken in the curriculum for the baccalaureate and the almost irreconcilable diversity of the various curricula; (2) the conclusion invariably arrived at, in spite of the repeated efforts of a number of delegates to establish a common standard of study, to leave each university complete freedom of action in this sphere.

As regards this subject, the universities may be divided into three separate groups: the western universities, the eastern English-speaking universities and the Catholic and French-speaking universities.

As regards the teaching of Science, all the English-speaking universities are more or less at one as to the time which should be allotted to it and the programme of scientific studies. There is less general agreement in regard to Letters; the dead languages which are taught in the east are excluded from the curriculum in the west. Moreover, both groups classify them with French under the heading of "Foreign Languages".

In the Catholic universities the dead languages are given a more prominent position, and English is classified as an "auxiliary language". The curriculum is quite different.

A conference was held at Quebec in 1920 and another at Winnipeg on June 16th and 17th, 1922. At the latter, the first item on the agenda was a discussion on Civil Service appointments in the British Colonies. As there have been a large number of vacancies in the colonial administration since the war, there is a demand for university men to fill the gaps, and the Canadian universities have been asked to bring this matter to the notice of their students.

A scheme for a federation of the medical faculties was submitted. At this conference, a committee consisting of a number of the medical men present submitted a scheme which was adopted. I give the following particulars: The committee recommended the constitution of a permanent conference committee to examine the question of medical instruction. This committee was to consist of not more than two representatives from each university with a medical faculty.

Professor Sheldon, of Alberta, suggested that a special committee should be set up in each university consisting of professors whose duty it would be to get into close touch with the freshmen studying letters—that is, in their first year in the faculty of Arts. It would be the duty of this committee to advise them in their studies, to enquire into their progress, to arrange

¹ "Annuaire général de l'Université de Montréal": Extracts from the Report of the Delegate of the University of Montreal to the Conference which took place at Winnipeg in June 1922.

special courses for backward students, to investigate the aptitudes of the latter and, if necessary, to advise them to abandon a university career.

Matriculation Questions.

The Winnipeg conference showed once more that not only as regards matriculation but also as regards all other questions, the French and English universities in Canada have quite different standpoints.

In the Anglo-Canadian university, matriculation marks the entrance to the Arts or college course, *i.e.* the four-years course for the bachelor's degree. Students matriculate after four years spent at the high school. If the hours and years of study alone are considered, these four years are equivalent to the four first classes in the French Classical course.

The instruction for the bachelor's degree is given in the faculty of Arts, which forms an integral part of the university. The conditions for admission to the various faculties are known as "entrance requirements".

Apart from their faculties of Arts, however, a number of universities have colleges affiliated to them, such as St. Michael's and Trinity, which are affiliated to Toronto, and St. Boniface, affiliated to Winnipeg. The relations between these colleges and their respective universities are precisely the same as those existing between the University of Montreal and its affiliated colleges.

At St. Boniface, which is under the direction of the Jesuits, the teaching is bilingual, as is the case at Ottawa University. To satisfy the requirements of the university, St. Boniface has had to modify the arrangement of subjects in its curriculum, without, however, altering the subjects or standard. By merely transferring certain Natural Sciences and certain branches of Mathematics from the Philosophy classes to the first four years of the Classical course, students pass without difficulty the matriculation examination required by the University of Manitoba to enable them to enter for the Arts course.

The Government has a voice in preparing the curriculum of the high schools in several provinces.

The Ninth Conference of Canadian Universities met in 1923. Among the subjects discussed were : the relations of the regularly organised universities to certain colleges dealing with extension work and dealing in a more or less formal manner with regular instruction ; university co-operation in serving their combined constituencies ; graduate work in Canada ; university co-operation in scientific and industrial research ; Oriental students in Canadian universities.

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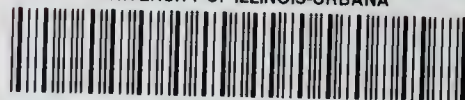
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